Principles of Guidance
And Pupil Personnel Work

PRINCIPLES

OF GUIDANCE

And Pupil Personnel Work

ARTHUR J. JONES

Professor of Secondary Education
School of Education, University of Pennsylvania

Fourth Edition

PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE

TO MY MOTHER

PREFACE TO THE FOURTH EDITION

The twenty years since the publication of the first edition of this book have witnessed some of the most important events in the history of the nation. The first edition appeared at the close of a period of unusual prosperity and at the beginning of the "Great Depression." The high hopes of the 1920's were succeeded by swift disaster that fell upon those who least deserved it; business and industry were forced to curtail their activities and unemployment began to increase. The second edition was published at the depth of the depression, when unemployment was at its height and when young people were no longer needed as workers. In an effort to relieve the situation, the Federal government embarked upon a far-reaching and precedent-shattering program of relief, education, and "pump priming." The dole and the WPA were universal; control of production and of prices was introduced; and the CCC and the NYA were established to provide for out-of-school, unemployed youth. The third edition came at the end of the Second World War. At that time veterans were returning by the thousands and the problems of readjustment to peacetime conditions overshadowed everything else. The fourth edition appears at a time when we are nominally at peace but when national rivalries and disagreements are still intense and when the dream of a united world has almost vanished and the specter of another war is all too evident. This age has justly been called the age of fear and uncertainty. In the short space of two decades the entire structure of our economic, social, and political system has undergone changes that have already profoundly affected our manner of life. Governmental control has steadily increased and the number of people employed by local, state, and Federal government has mushroomed.

Each of these periods has brought with it new and increasingly complex and difficult problems for young and old, but their impact has been especially heavy upon youth. The various editions have attempted to keep pace with the changing prob-

lems as they have developed. The fourth edition is not essentially different from the third in general organization and in fundamental concepts. The statistics regarding population changes, occupational distribution, and educational facilities have been brought up to date as far as governmental data have permitted. In some cases older tables have been retained when they were used merely for illustrative purposes and when the older data served the purpose satisfactorily. Chapter XXVIII, "The Impact of the War on Guidance," has been omitted because much of the material no longer applies. Whenever pertinent, the data from this chapter have been incorporated in other chapters. Chapter XXII, "The Guidance of Out-of-school Youth," has been reorganized and enlarged to include certain phases of adult education. Considerable attention has been given to the relationship between guidance and pupil personnel work. We are beginning to recognize that the purpose of personnel work in all areas and that of guidance are the same, and that pupil personnel work, properly understood, includes the services called guidance. This makes it important that the place and function of guidance as related to pupil personnel work be clearly defined. This discussion is undertaken not as a defense of guidance, for it needs none, but to emphasize the essential unity of the two services and at the same time to show the value of retaining the term "guidance" because of its special significance and its vitality. Discussions of definitions and relationships are useful only as they serve to clarify thinking and lead to more effective action; they sometimes tend to distract attention away from the services themselves. This is unfortunate, for the services are the only things of real importance. The purpose of the discussion is to help remove misunderstandings and to promote a unified and more effective service.

The author is deeply grateful for the favorable reception given to the previous editions and hopes that this edition also may be useful to all who are engaged in the service of youth. Grateful recognition is given to Barbara T. Driehaus for her editorial assistance and to many other friends and associates for their valuable suggestions and criticisms.

<div align="right">ARTHUR J. JONES</div>

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

One of the most significant developments in education during the past quarter century is the guidance movement. Beginning in a small way in Boston during the first decade of the present century, it has developed with amazing rapidity until now nearly every city of fifty thousand inhabitants and over has some definitely organized work of this kind. This rapid development is sufficient evidence of the fundamental importance of the movement.

However, its real significance is seen not so much in the multiplication of guidance facilities or in the development of the machinery for administering it, as in the nature of guidance itself. The very rapidity of the growth of administrative facilities has tended to obscure, to some extent, the real significance of the process. On this account there is still much confusion regarding the nature of guidance not only among those interested in education in general but even among those closely associated with the movement.

This book has been written with the purpose of making clear the real meaning and significance of guidance, especially as it is related to the public schools. It attempts to formulate and explain the fundamental principles underlying the movement. Although many illustrations of actual procedures are given and many suggestions made for improving practices, the book is not intended to serve as a handbook, giving rule-of-thumb directions for guiding students. Its purpose is, rather, to give a conception of guidance which will enable teachers and administrators to see the relation of guidance to other phases of education and thus form a basis for proper evaluation of procedures and practices.

It is designed to meet the needs of that rapidly growing body of workers in our public schools upon whom the chief burden of guidance rests. It might also serve as a basic text in the Principles of Guidance, now so commonly suggested as part of the training of counselors.

The phases that most immediately concern the public school and are most readily put into operation have been selected for special consideration. Guidance in college; social, leadership, civic, and moral guidance; and guidance in relation to home membership, to health, to religion, and to leisure time have been discussed only briefly in connection with the main problem. Certain suggestions, however, have been made that should enable the reader to see the relation of these special fields to guidance as a whole and to understand how the general principles may be applied to all forms.

The material here presented has served as the basis for courses in guidance given at the University of Pennsylvania for several years past and has been continually revised in the light of class discussion and individual conferences.

CONTENTS

PART III

METHODS OF GUIDING STUDENTS

PART IV

ORGANIZATION, PRESENT STATUS, AND EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

LIST OF TABLES, FIGURES, AND POSTERS

TABLES

xiii

FIGURES

PART I

MEANING AND PURPOSE OF GUIDANCE

"As a race we produce a considerable percentage of persons in each generation who have the intellectual and moral qualities for the moral and intellectual inspiration of others, for the organization and administration of our gigantic economic and intellectual machinery, and for invention and creation. I believe that we lose a large portion of those who could join these ranks because we fail to find them, to train them rightly, to create character in them, and to inspire them to effort. Our teachers are necessarily the army of inspectors in our Nation who must find these individuals and who must stimulate them forward. . . ."

HERBERT HOOVER, *Ideals in American Education, Journal of The National Education Association,* 12:79, March, 1923.

NEED FOR GUIDANCE

I. FUNDAMENTAL BASIS FOR GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

1. *Guidance Based upon Human Need.* Guidance is founded upon the principle of the conservation of human life and human energy; it is based upon the fact of human need. We need not believe with Gray that there reside in every individual the possibilities of becoming a Hampden, a Milton, or a Cromwell and that only circumstances hinder their proper development.

> Th' applause of listening senates to command,
>   The threat of pain and ruin to despise,
> To scatter plenty o'er a smiling land,
>   And read their history in a nation's eyes
>
> Their lot forbade; . . .

We have only to look around us and see the conditions that confront our friends and ourselves to be convinced that human energy is wasted, lives are misspent, and misery and disaster result from lack of direction and from unwise selection of occupation, of recreation, of companions, and of educational opportunities.

Guidance is based upon the fact that human beings need help. Everyone needs assistance at some time in his life; some will need it constantly and throughout their entire lives, while others need it only at rare intervals at times of great crisis. The possibility of education, as well as the necessity for it, is founded upon the essential dependence of people upon one another. Young people, especially, are not capable of solving life's problems successfully without aid. Some profess to believe that there is something inherent in every child that will enable him to solve all his problems himself if we only let him do it. All he needs is sympathetic understanding and freedom from control or direction by others. They would also have us believe that education need not prepare for the future; its function is merely

to enable the child to live his own present life better; this is the best preparation for the future. Fortunately, few people act upon this assumption. Many critical situations occur in our lives, situations in which important and far-reaching decisions must be made, and it is very necessary that some adequate help be provided in order that these decisions may be made wisely.

2. *Examples of Need for Guidance.* It is often very helpful for us to look back over the more or less devious paths by which we have come to our present occupation or our present position, or even to any particular point of view that we may have. Sometimes we can trace very definitely the influences that led us to our present position; sometimes these influences are very obscure. Often we seem to have been the playthings of blind chance. Not infrequently we can *see where our whole course in life might have been changed* and materially improved if we had had wise guidance at the time of a particular crisis. A chance word, a smile of contempt or of encouragement given by a passer-by, a book or an article that we have read, or some other haphazard circumstance has often been the determining influence in one direction or another.

A young man, just graduated from high school and intending to go to work on a farm, happened to meet the principal of a normal school who asked him what he was planning to do. This circumstance, with no direct advice from the principal, led the young man to go to normal school and to teach. Later he graduated from college, took further professional training, and is now one of the leading educators of the country.

Edward graduated with honors from an eastern college. He was a student and literary in his tastes. After graduation he accepted a position as secretary in an industrial establishment. The initial salary was good for a young man but the possibility for advancement was very limited. He did not know what he wanted to do for a lifework and accepted the position merely as a good way to earn a living. He soon met a very attractive young woman and they speedily fell in love and were married. Years passed and he remained in the same position, receiving salary enough for a bare living. There was nothing in the position that had the slightest attraction for him; and it was for him drudgery of the worst kind, but he could not change to anything more congenial because he must provide for his wife and three

children. Here was a man with the tastes of a scholar and high scholastic ability who would, in all probability, have been successful and happy as a teacher in a college or university but who wore his life out doing hack work as a stenographer.

3. *Universal Need for Guidance.* These are but samples that show need for help; in every walk of life, at every step in school progress, in the ever-changing situations that confront each one, the need for guidance is seen. It has always been so and will continue to be so as long as human beings exist. The need for guidance is not confined to the poor and to those who must leave school early; it is as clearly seen among the favored classes and among those who attend our colleges and professional schools.

II. PRESENT DEMAND FOR DEFINITE PROVISION FOR GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

Although the need for help has always been present, there have been social and economic changes that have taken place during the past half century that have made it increasingly necessary to make more definite provision for certain forms of guidance in our public schools.

1. *Changing Conditions of the Home.* In colonial times, the home exercised a large influence in industrial training. This was especially true of the farm home, because nearly everything necessary to existence was raised on the farm. Labor was largely unspecialized; the farmer's wife and daughter carded and spun the wool, weaved it into cloth, and made the clothes that were worn. Candles were dipped, meat was cured, the logs for house and barn were hewn from trees cut down in the surrounding forest. The farmer was carpenter, plumber, blacksmith, and machinist.

In these activities of the colonial household, the boys and girls had a real part; they were not mere interested onlookers. They were vital elements in the machinery by which the family was kept alive. They learned both by observation and by imitation and by instruction; they learned through grim necessity many things that young people at present never learn except as accomplishments. They learned how to build fires, milk cows, feed and care for horses, cattle, hogs, and sheep; how to build and mend fences; how to dig wells, cut trees, make butter and

cheese, weave cloth, and perform a hundred other duties required in those primitive days.

Gradually at first, more rapidly in recent years, the home has changed and it no longer occupies the position in training that it once did. The elimination of the frontier, the development of trade and commerce, the specialization of industry, all have been accompanied by the exclusion from the home of nearly all its early industrial training. In fact, in many of our homes there is practically nothing left for the boy to do. Modern, centrally heated apartments or homes no longer call for the duties of tending the furnaces; there are no lawns to cut, no cattle or horses to care for, no rugs to beat, no duties to perform. There still remains for the girl a *possibility* of assisting in the care of the home, in cooking, in washing dishes, and in sewing. But in spite of this possibility, the demands of the school, the movie, and the social life often operate to free the girl, also, from anything but a very small part of the work of homemaking. The problem assumes its most serious form when father and mother both are employed throughout the day. In such cases, home life in the old sense is gone.

The changed conditions have operated to throw upon the school added responsibilities. It must not only care for the general education of the young man or woman but must assume a large part in providing training in cooking, sewing, budgeting, food values, handwork of various kinds, recreations, and even moral training. It is useless for us to say that the home is shirking its responsibilities, that it is unfair and unwise to shift these burdens from the home to the school. Some of them the school can do much better than the home. In any case, the question is not whether the home should or should not do it. We are faced with a situation, not a theory: this training is vital; our children must get it in some way; no one is now assuming the responsibility; someone must do it; it is clear that the home is not doing it; the best agency at present available is the school. If some of these duties can be done better by the home, then a part of the task of the school is so to train the present generation that when they grow up the home will assume a larger share of such responsibility than it does at present. There seems little likelihood that the school can relax its efforts in any of these particulars for some time to come. Fathers, especially,

are home such a small part of the time that they scarcely can get acquainted with their children. Mothers, even when not called upon to help support the family, often are so taken up with social duties that they, too, are not at home to their own children. A recent study of conditions in a well-to-do community showed that 75 per cent of the mothers were not at home in the afternoons when their children returned from school. It is also undeniably true that the discipline of the home has considerably relaxed or at least changed in character. Children are no longer "seen and not heard"; they are given much greater freedom and exercise far greater initiative in choice of companions and in social activities than ever before. Parents are too often content to sit idly by and watch with helpless fatalism the varied and not altogether desirable antics and activities of their children. They say, "What are we coming to? Children are so different now—we would never have thought of doing such scandalous things when we were their age." But they do nothing about it.

In the face of these changed conditions, it is clear that the school must assume a much larger part in the guidance of youth.

2. *Changing Conditions of Labor and Industry.* Turning to the field of labor and industry, we see many profound changes that greatly increase the need for guidance. The apprenticeship system has been greatly curtailed, and in many areas has disappeared entirely as a result of the speeding up of production and the specialization of industry. In colonial times, men were, for the most part, all-round workmen in their own occupations; that is, each man performed all or nearly all the operations necessary in his particular vocation. This was all very well when needs were comparatively simple, when the rural population was such a large part of the total population; but modern life demands that production be speeded up, that small business give place to larger concerns, that industry be specialized, that each man learn to do some one thing and do it well, or at least do it quickly, in order that more products may result.

The degree of this increase in specialization may be seen from a comparison of the classification of occupations in the Census of 1900 with those of 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940, and 1949. The comparisons show some very significant changes in occupational distribution.

TABLE I. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR FORCE AND GAINFUL WORKERS BY MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, 1900–1949 [1]

Occupational group	Per- cent- age, 1900	Per- cent- age, 1910	Per- cent- age, 1920	Per- cent- age, 1930	Per- cent- age, 1940 [2]	Per- cent- age, 1949 [2]	Per- centage, 1900– 1949	Percentage change in numbers, 1900–1949
Agriculture, forestry and fishing......	34.3	32.0	26.0	23.4	15.1	12.8	−63.0	−25.0
Extraction of minerals....	2.2	3.1	3.0	2.0	1.7	1.4	−37.0	+40.0
Manufacturing	21.5	24.1	27.2	20.1	19.2	22.3	+3.0	+14.7
Construction..	5.8	5.7	3.8	5.9	3.5	3.4	−41.0	+27.0
Transporta- tion and public utilities.....	5.7	7.1	7.3	7.0	5.5	6.4	+12.0	+14.4
Trade distri- bution and finance.....	11.4	12.7	13.6	16.2	20.6	17.8	+56.0	+242.0
Service indus- tries........	13.9	14.5	15.8	17.3	18.2	16.7	+20.0	+167.0

[1] Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1942, pp. 66–82, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1943.

[2] Data for 1949 from advance sheets of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C., estimated.

Table I shows the general classification of the major occupations and the percentages of workers engaged in each. It also shows the percentages of increase or decrease from 1900 to 1949. These comparisons are not entirely accurate because of several factors. The data from 1940 and 1949 are not comparable in all respects to those for earlier years, because of a change in classification. The data for 1949 are estimates based on the sampling procedure employed by the Census Bureau between census years. It is also evident that general social and economic conditions in 1949 were still unstable and very much affected by the Second World War and its aftermath; this influence will also be felt for some time to come. Because of these factors

the relationships and trends cannot be considered as accurate but they will serve to indicate general trends.

This specialization calls for very definite and careful guidance in some organized form; it cannot be left to haphazard choice. Young men and women are confronted by a bewildering variety of occupations; they find many different kinds of jobs masquerading under the same general name. It is not sufficient to choose the occupation of electrician; one must know what particular kind of work he will do as an electrician. In order to make an intelligent choice, the young man must have at hand certain definite facts about occupations, the kind of work to be done in each, the qualifications for the job, the possibility of getting a job in the occupation under consideration, and the best places for securing the training necessary to fit him for the job.

Not only is the variety of occupations bewildering, but the occupational changes themselves are sufficient to render intelligent decision impossible without help. Even though the population increased by more than 70,000,000 between 1900 and 1949, the actual number of workers in agriculture, fishing, and forestry decreased by more than a million and a half. Between 1940 and 1947, nearly 7,500,000 persons left farms and went to live in villages and cities; about 4,300,000 moved from cities to farms. The net loss of the farm population was 3,200,000, or about 12 per cent of the farm population in 1940. On the other hand, some occupational groups show decided increases. The most significant increases were in manufacturing, service industries, and trade and distribution. The changes over a longer period are still more striking: Fig. 1 shows the percentage increases in population in total gainfully employed and in numbers engaged in major occupational groups from 1870 to 1949. The most phenomenal gain is in Trade. Another very important change, not shown in Table I or Fig. 1, is that in the number engaged in Federal government services; from 1940 to 1949, less than ten years, this number increased by over 240 per cent. Reliable estimates indicate that six of every 100 persons engaged in remunerative occupations are in the pay of the Federal government; at least one out of every ten is in state or Federal work. Figures 2 and 3 indicate proportional changes in certain selected occupations. The contrast between clerical services and agri-

Fig. 1. Percentage increase in population and in numbers engaged in gainful employment by major occupational groups, 1870–1949.
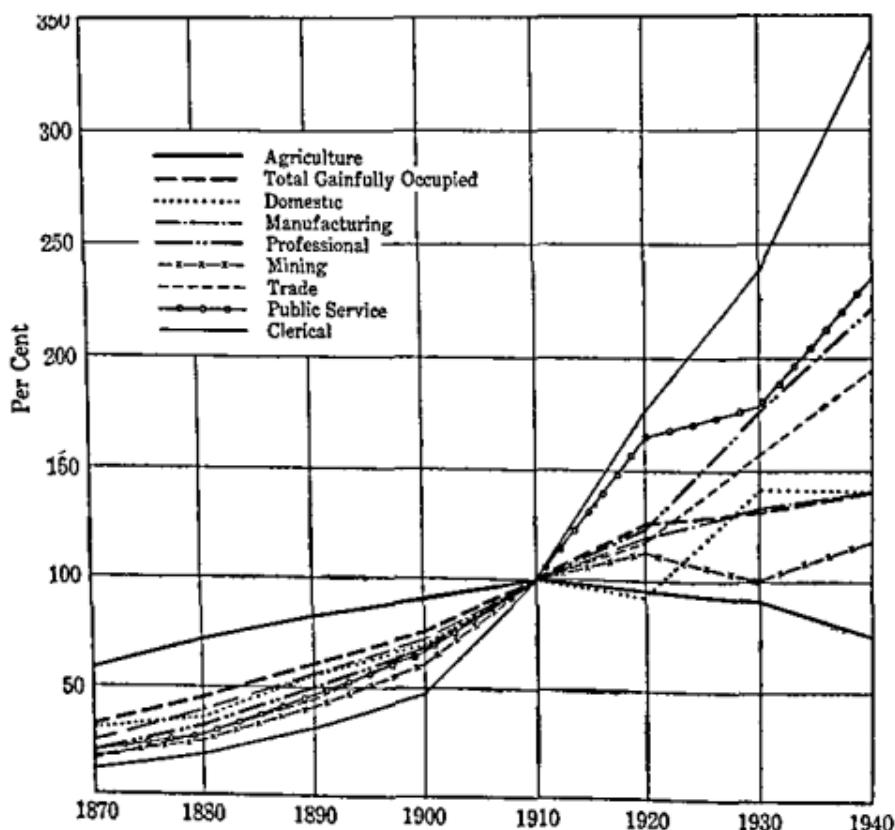
Fig. 2. Percentage gainfully employed in each occupational group on a basis of the number in that occupation in 1910.

culture is especially noteworthy in Fig. 2, and that between librarians and trained nurses, on the one hand, and physicians, on the other, in Fig. 3. Many other changes in occupational
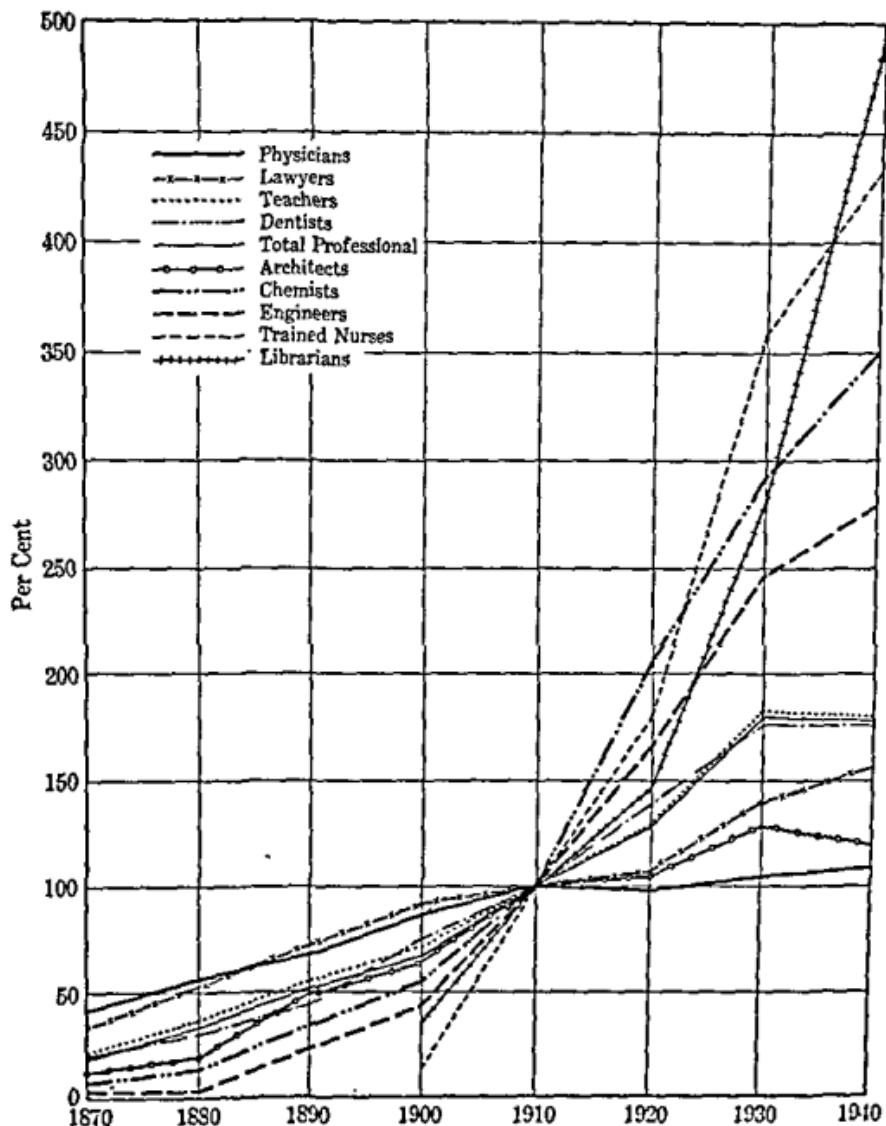
Fig. 3. Percentage gainfully employed in different professions on a basis of the number in that profession in 1910.

distribution are given in "Occupational Trends in the United States" by Anderson and Davidson.[1] On the whole the trends

---

[1] ANDERSON, H. DEWEY, and PERCY E. DAVIDSON, "Occupational Trends in the United States," Stanford University Press, Stanford University, Calif., 1940.

shown in this excellent source have continued up to today with some more or less temporary dislocations caused by war conditions.

Another change that should be noted is the increased occupational opportunities for women and the changes in types of occupations in which women are engaged. *Some of these changes are shown in Tables II and III.*

TABLE II.   WOMEN WORKERS, 1900-1949 [1]

Year	Women workers	
	Per cent of all workers	Per cent of all women 14 years of age or older
1900	18.1	20.4
1910	20.9	25.2
1920	20.4	23.3
1930	22.0	24.3
1940	25.4	27.4
1949	27.2	28.3

[1] From "Women's Bureau Handbook of Facts about Women Workers," *Bulletin* No. 225, 1948, and "Facts on Women Workers," monthly issue, May 31, 1949.

Table II shows the constantly increased number and percentage of women engaged in gainful occupations. Table III indicates significant changes through the prewar, war, and postwar periods. Women were called upon in large numbers during the war to take the places of men who were in active service. All the occupational groups given show a drop from 1945 to 1949. However, there is a net increase from 1940 to 1949 in all employed women—in clerical, service (not domestic), and sales workers, in farm workers, and in proprietors. *There is a shift from manual to nonmanual work and toward the white-collar group.* The decrease in the servant group as opposed to other service groups is also apparent. There were 2,000,000 more women clerical workers in April, 1949, than in April, 1940.

Other important changes are shown in Fig. 4 and Tables IV

TABLE III.   CHANGES IN PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL
GROUPS, 1900–1949 [1]

Occupational group	Per cent of all workers in each occupational group who were women		
	1940	1945	1949
All employed women......................	26	36	28
Clerical and kindred workers.............	53	70	61
Operatives and kindred workers...........	26	38	15
Domestic-service workers.................	94	94	92
Service workers (except domestic).........	40	48	44
Professional and semiprofessional workers....	45	46	37
Sales workers..........................	28	54	38
Farmers and farm workers................	8	22	14
Proprietors, managers, and officials (except farm)................................	12	17	14

[1] From "Women's Bureau Handbook of Facts about Women Workers," *Bulletin* No. 225, 1948, and "Facts on Women Workers," monthly issue, May 31, 1949.
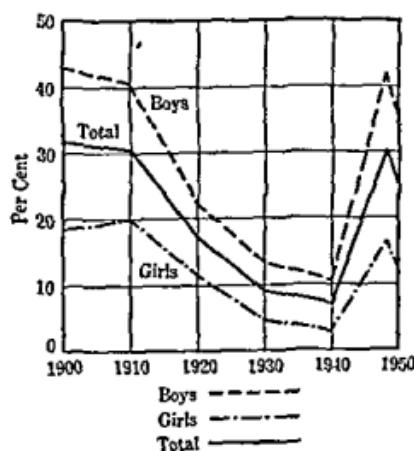
FIG. 4. Percentage of boys and girls ten to fifteen years of age in labor force and in gainful work.

and V. These concern youth and their changing place in the field of occupations. Figure 4 shows the great decrease in the percentage of boys and girls ten to fifteen years of age in *gainful occupations* from 1900 to 1950. We do not have com-

TABLE IV. Boys and Girls 14 and 15 Years of Age in Labor Force and in Gainful Work, 1900-1949 [1]

(In Thousands)

| Year | Total population 14 and 15 years old | | | In labor force and in gainful work | | | | | |
| | | | | Number | | | Per cent | | |
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1900	1,562	1,539	3,101	679	280	959	43.4	18.2	30.9
1910	1,798	1,771	3,569	744	350	1,094	41.4	19.8	30.7
1920	1,959	1,948	3,907	456	227	683	23.3	11.6	17.5
1930	2,361	2,317	4,678	299	133	432	12.6	5.8	9.2
1940	2,440	2,388	4,828	256	74	330	10.5	3.1	7.1
1949	2,103	2,056	4,159	883	374	1,257	42.0	18.1	30.2

[1] Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1942, pp. 56, 57, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1943; and from advance sheets of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C.

parable data after 1949; but after 1949 there was a definite decrease in this percentage. Table V shows the changes brought about by war conditions. The employment of fourteen- and

TABLE V. Employment of Young People 14 and 15 Years Old, 1940-1949 [1]

Years	Number
1940	209,347
1944	850,000
1945	1,000,000
1946	750,000
1947	630,000
1948	610,000
1949	619,000

[1] From *Annual Report of National Child Labor Committee*, October, 1949.

fifteen-year-olds reached its maximum in 1945; since that time there has been a steady decrease but it was then three times what it was in 1940. It is evident that the decrease will continue and that the opportunities for employment for young

people under sixteen will be very few; even for those under nineteen they will be greatly reduced.

TABLE VI. RATIO OF WHITE PERSONS OF SELF-SUPPORTING AGE TO WHITE CHILDREN, 1790–1950 [1]

(In Thousands)

Year	Number of white persons 20 years of age and over	Number of white children under 16 years of age	Number of white persons 20 years of age and over per 1,000 white children under 16 years of age
1790	1,214	1,553	782
1800	1,832	2,156	850
1810	2,485	2,933	847
1820	3,395	3,844	883
1830	4,626	4,970	931
1840	6,440	6,511	989
1850	9,422	8,428	1,118
1860	13,311	11,330	1,175
1870	17,070	13,719	1,244
1880	22,928	16,920	1,355
1890	30,264	20,154	1,502
1900	37,748	23,846	1,583
1910 [2]	48,047	27,224	1,765
1920 [3]	56,676	31,472	1,801
1930 [4]	67,323	33,449	2,013
1940 [5]	78,340	31,155	2,515
1950 [6]	98,500	43,000	2,300

[1] "A Century of Population Growth, 1790–1900," p. 103, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C.

[2] Thirteenth Census of the United States, I: 310–312.

[3] Fourteenth Census of the United States, II: 162–164.

[4] Fifteenth Census of the United States, advance sheet.

[5] Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1942, estimated.

[6] Estimated from official forecasts.

Table VI shows trends that should be considered in connection with Tables IV and V. The ratio of adults who may reasonably be supposed to be self-supporting, or at least capable of useful employment, to children under sixteen years of age has

constantly increased. The same tendency is also shown by Table VII. The median age has also increased. Data from

TABLE VII. CHANGE IN PRODUCTIVE CAPACITY AS INDICATED BY THE PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION IN THREE AGE DIVISIONS, 1870–1950 [1]

Age	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950
Under 16 years....	41.3	40.0	37.6	36.4	33.9	33.5	31.2	26.9	28.7
16–64 years.......	55.7	56.6	58.5	59.5	61.8	61.8	63.4	66.3	64.0
65 years and over..	3.0	3.4	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.8	7.3
Total..........	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] "Recent Social Trends in the United States," Vol. I, p. 276, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1933; *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 1942; figures for 1950, estimated.

fourteen states show median increases from 0 in Nevada to 3.2 years in North Dakota from 1930 to 1940. The median increase for these states was 2 years, while that for the entire country was 2.6 years. This change in relative productive capacity of different age groups, taken with the rapid development of labor-saving machinery and the speeding up of production, already noted, means that it is decreasingly necessary for young people to engage in gainful occupations. Indeed, if they did, large numbers of adults would be thrown out of employment. Something must be done with and for these young people; they cannot be left to roam the streets or to take to the road and become hoboes. The schools must provide for them, and employment must be put off to a later day, except for such forms of part-time, supervised employment as will be correlated with schoolwork.

These changes will affect not only young people; many men also must expect to modify or even change their type of vocation several times within the space of their lifetime. This points clearly to the necessity for developing the ability to readjust oneself to changing conditions and calls for a very different type of training. It shows that the young person, no matter how intelligent he may be, cannot by himself successfully meet modern conditions; he must have help. It becomes more and more apparent that the only agency that can be relied upon to give this

aid is the public school. It must assume the major responsibility for this service.

3. *Changes in Population.* Other changes that have a far-reaching effect upon the work of guidance are those connected with the growth of population and with changes in its character.
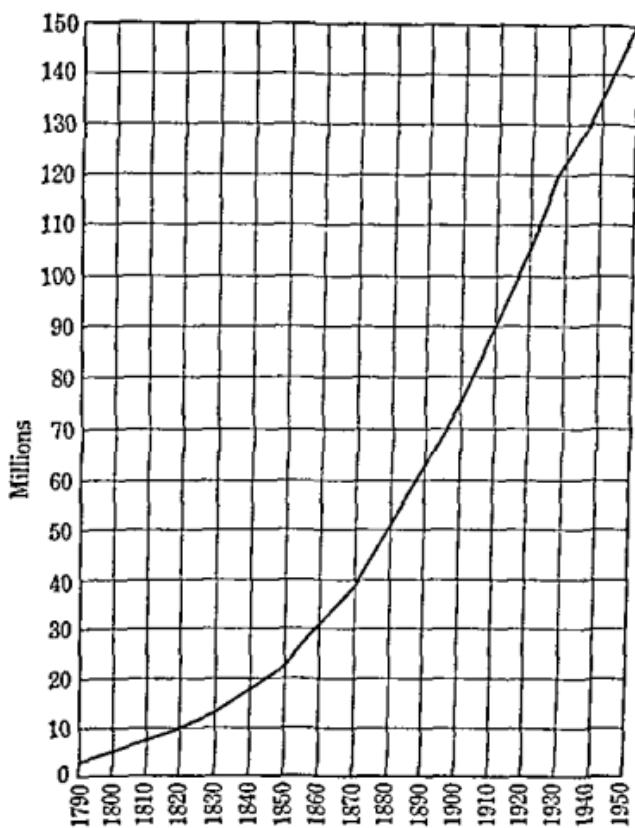
Fig. 5. Growth in population of the United States, excluding outlying possessions.

Figure 5 shows in a graphic way the growth in population since 1790. We grew from about 4,000,000 in 1790 to approximately 150,000,000 in 1950. In spite of the fact that immigration has been considerably restricted in recent years, we have grown so rapidly in numbers that conditions of living and industry have completely changed, and problems of production, transportation, and distribution have increased in complexity. But the gross figures of increase tell only a small part of the story. Table VIII shows the changes in urban and rural population since 1820. It is interesting and significant that the largest percentage of

TABLE VIII. POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES—URBAN AND RURAL [1]

Year	Rural		Urban		Cities over 25,000	
	Population	Percentage distribution	Population	Percentage distribution	Population	Percentage distribution
1820	8,961,000	93.0	677,000	7.0	322,000	3.4
1840	15,091,000	88.4	1,972,000	11.6	939,000	5.5
1850	19,291,000	83.2	3,901,000	16.8	2,071,000	8.9
1870	28,464,000	73.8	10,094,000	26.2	5,828,000	15.1
1890	40,649,355	64.6	22,298,359	35.4	13,989,791	22.2
1900	45,614,142	60.0	30,380,433	40.0	19,718,312	25.9
1910	49,806,146	54.2	42,166,120	45.8	28,507,098	31.0
1920	51,406,017	48.6	54,304,603	51.4	37,770,114	35.7
1930	53,820,223	43.8	68,955,823	56.2	49,242,877	40.1
1940	57,245,573	43.5	74,423,702	56.5	52,748,999	40.0
1947	58,201,000	41.0	83,860,000	59.0	No data available	

[1] Data for 1820–1870 taken from W. S. Thompson, and P. K. Whelpton, "Population Trends in the United States," Recent Social Trends Monographs, p. 24, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1933. Data for 1890–1930 taken from Fifteenth Census of the United States, I:14. Data for 1940 from Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1942; for 1947 from Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1948.

increase has been in cities above 25,000 in population. Defining urban population as that living in places of 2,500 and over, we see that the proportion of urban population has steadily increased from 7 per cent in 1820 to 35.4 per cent in 1890 and 59 per cent in 1950. There has been a rapid development of the suburbs of large cities, and the population in these places is far more urban than rural. Even the present-day farmer is more city-minded than he was fifty years ago. The telephone, rural free delivery, the radio, all put him in instant touch with world news and world conditions. The ever-present automobile and radio enable him to enjoy movies, lectures, and concerts that were out of reach of his father. This increasing concentration of the population in cities and the increasing city-mindedness of farmers present problems for the young worker that are perplexing in the extreme. The nation has changed from one that was predominantly rural to one that is over half urban. With

this change, partly causing it and partly caused by it, have come great changes in occupations of all kinds, in living conditions, in labor problems, and in schools. The great mixture of nationalities, or at least of racial stocks, has complicated the general situation. Problems of maladjustment are often directly related to customs, ideals, and languages that are foreign and often opposed to basic principles of our life and institutions. These adjustments cannot safely be left to haphazard methods; they must be consciously provided for, and in a definite, organized way.

Another factor of considerable importance is the increased migration of the population within the country. "Internal migration since 1940 has been of a magnitude greater than for any similar period in our history. On April 1, 1947, 70 million persons were living in homes other than the ones in which they lived in April, 1940. During the same period, 13 million changed counties in the same state, approximately 5 million moved to a contiguous state, and nearly 7.5 million migrated to a non-contiguous state. . . . The total number of migrants between 1940 and 1947 was in excess of 25 million. Approximately 21 per cent of the population were migrants."[2] This migration has caused the breakup of homes and the disruption of friendships and social ties, and has contributed greatly to the general feeling of unrest, uncertainty, and fear for the future.

4. *Changes in Birth Rate and Death Rate.* Another factor of great importance is the change in birth rate and death rate. Table IX shows the birth rates and death rates per thousand of the population from 1915 to 1949. Up to 1930 both rates steadily declined. The shutting off of immigration, the increasing density of population, the intensity of competition, all had their share in the decrease of the birth rate, while medical care, public control of contagious diseases, and sanitation decreased the death rate. In spite of this decrease in the death rate, the excess of births over deaths decreased from 11.0 in 1915 to 6.0 in 1935. More significant still is the fact that in some of our large cities the birth rate actually fell below the death rate. It is reported that in San Francisco the deficit of births over deaths was 25 per cent. A phenomenon of great significance was the continual

TABLE IX. BIRTH RATE AND DEATH RATE (PER THOUSAND) [1]

	1915	1920	1925	1930	1935	1940	1949
Birth rate..............	25.0	23.7	21.3	18.9	16.9	17.9	25.1
Death rate..............	14.0	13.1	11.7	11.3	10.9	10.8	9.7
Excess of births over deaths..	11.0	10.6	9.6	7.6	6.0	7.1	15.4

[1] *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 1942, p. 105, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1943; and advance sheets of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C.

decrease in the actual numbers of children in the lower elementary grades of our public schools. In some cities the decrease in enrollment in grades 1 to 6 was very high. At the same time the enrollment in the high schools increased. However, beginning in 1935, the birth rate began to rise and the effect upon school enrollment was reversed. In the five-year period from 1935 to 1940 the birth rate rose from 16.9 to 17.9 per thousand, and the death rate decreased from 10.9 to 10.8. The estimated birth rate for 1949 was 25.1 and the death rate was 10.8, making an excess of births over deaths of 15.4. The decrease in the deaths of children from birth to ten years of age is strikingly shown in Table X and Fig. 6. The vital statistics records of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company reveal a great increase over a period of thirty years in children who live to the age of ten. Of the children born (live births) in 1900 only 80 per cent lived to be ten years old, while of those born in 1930, 91.5 per cent attained that age. This means that 115 more children per thousand reached the age of ten than did thirty years before. Figure 6 shows that the greatest change occurred after 1910.

Such changes in birth rate and death rate will profoundly affect our entire social, economic, and educational situation and increase the problems of young people especially. The decrease in the death rate will tend to offset the decrease in the birth rate; this will result in a continual increase in numbers of pupils in the secondary school and will make the problem of caring for the older youth more acute than ever.

5. *Increase in Amount of General Education Demanded.* In early colonial times, educational needs were comparatively sim-

TABLE X. PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN SURVIVING TO ATTAIN SPECIFIED AGE FROM STATED YEAR OF BIRTH, WHITE MALES, UNITED STATES[1]

Age	Year of birth						
	1900	1905	1910	1915	1920	1925	1930
0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1	86.4	88.8	87.5	91.1	90.8	92.5	93.9
2	83.8	86.1	85.4	88.9	89.5	91.1	93.1
3	82.7	85.1	84.5	88.1	88.9	90.6	92.7
4	82.0	84.4	83.9	87.2	88.4	90.2	92.4
5	81.5	83.9	83.5	86.8	88.1	89.9	92.2
6	81.1	83.5	83.2	86.5	87.8	89.7	92.0
7	80.7	83.2	82.9	86.2	87.6	89.5	91.8
8	80.4	83.0	82.6	85.9	87.4	89.4	91.7
9	80.2	82.7	82.3	85.8	87.2	89.2	91.6
10	80.0	82.5	82.1	85.6	87.1	89.1	91.5

[1] Data furnished by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

ple. The religious beliefs of the Pilgrims and Puritans, as well as their political creed, demanded that all know how to read and write. This need was based upon their belief that everyone should be able to read the Bible and have personal access to the revealed purposes of God. It was also based upon the idea that everyone was individually responsible for knowing the law of the land and for obeying it; therefore, since he should be able to read it for himself, it was considered essential that everyone know how to read and write. This was considered to be a family duty and not one that devolved upon the state. However, recognizing the inability of many homes to provide this training, the colonists provided schools for the necessary training in the fundamentals. Even these schools presupposed that the pupils already knew how to read, at least knew their "letters." It is worth noting that it was not compulsory for anyone to send his children to these schools. They were merely devices to supplement the home in giving that minimum training considered necessary for all. In the opinion of the colonists, it was so necessary that everyone know how to read and write that we may say that *education* in the colonies was practically compulsory; the *estab-*
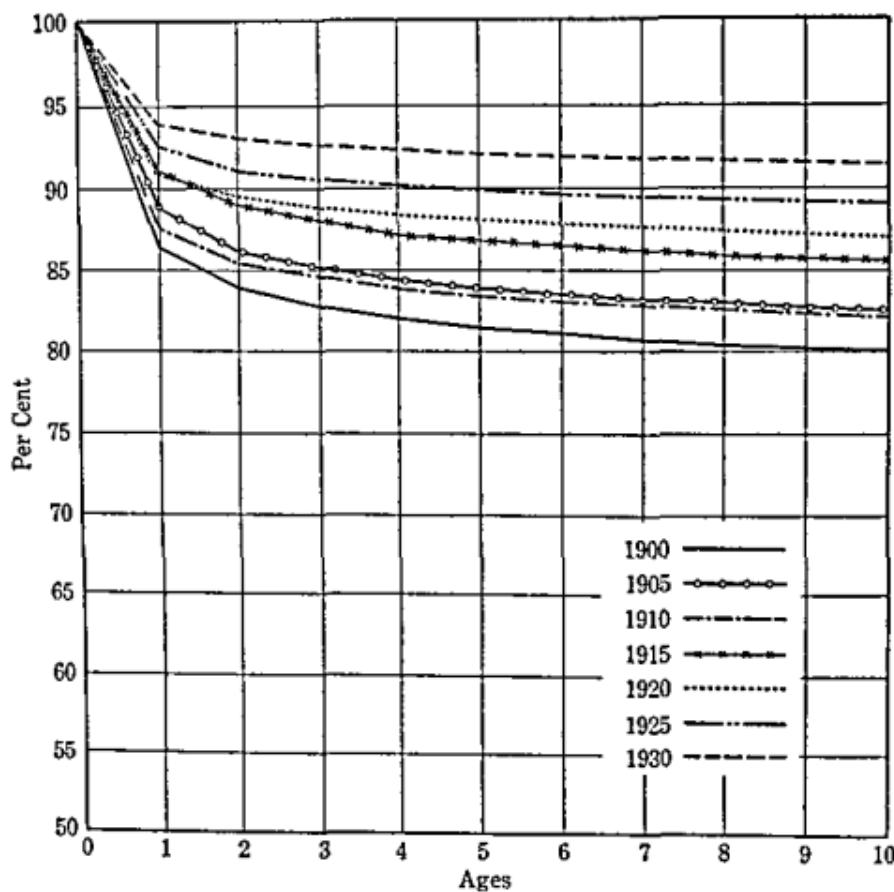
FIG. 6. Percentage of children attaining a specified age from stated years of birth.

lishment of schools was also compulsory, but *attendance at school* was not compulsory.

The other need for education was seen in the demand for trained leaders, especially in the ministry. To supply this demand the Latin grammar school was established to give the necessary preliminary training, and Harvard College was founded to provide the definite technical preparation necessary for the ministry. These schools had a very considerable influence upon the colonists but never attracted more than a handful of boys. In its best days, up to 1800, the Boston Latin School probably never had an enrollment of over fifty. These schools, like the English grammar schools, were established merely for the convenience of parents.

With freedom from primitive dangers, with the growth of trade and commerce, the rapid increase in population, and the development of newspapers, there came the demand for larger

facilities for school and a longer period of education. That this change in educational need was recognized is shown in several ways: (1) in the establishment and spread of academies that incorporated in their programs many of the subjects demanded by the new conditions: science, geometry, surveying, navigation, bookkeeping, and commercial arithmetic; (2) in the growth of private venture schools on the seaboard which specialized in practical arithmetic, navigating, and bookkeeping; (3) in the establishment of the public high school that began as a higher school for the training of boys who were going into business; (4) in the gradual development of schools of secondary grade for girls. The subsequent steps in the demand for increased education are indicated by (1) the abolition of the district system in favor of a larger unit of taxation and of control; (2) the abandonment of the system of tuition fees for secondary schools; (3) the establishment of the plan for free textbooks and materials; (4) the establishment of compulsory attendance and of a minimum age for leaving school, together with laws preventing or regulating the employment of children under certain ages; and, finally, (5) the establishment of the sixth-grade (or in some states the eighth-grade) standard as a minimum educational requirement. It is also seen in (6) the lengthening of the school year, (7) the increased demands for the training of teachers, and (8) the enormous increase in the enrollment in our secondary schools. This last is strikingly shown in Table XI and Fig. 7.

TABLE XI. ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES [1]

1889–1890	1894–1895	1899–1900	1904–1905	1909–1910	1914–1915
202,963	350,099	519,251	679,702	915,061	1,328,984
1919–1920	1924–1925	1929–1930	1934–1935	1939–1940	1946–1947
2,199,389	3,650,903	4,399,422	5,669,156	6,601,444	5,704,856

[1] From "The Current Situation in Education," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1933; statistical summaries, U.S. Office of Education; and advance data from the U.S. Office of Education.

TABLE XII. PERSONS ATTENDING SCHOOL AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION
5 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE, 1880–1948 [1]

1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1948
65.5	68.6	72.4	73.5	77.8	81.3	85.3	85.6

[1] Data for 1870–1930 from Statistical Summary of Education, 1935–1936, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 2, pp. 16–17; for 1940 from "Advance Statement of Statistics of State School Systems," U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1940; for 1948 from advance sheets of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C., April, 1949.

FIG. 8. Percentage increase in population, fourteen to seventeen years of age, and in secondary-school enrollment; public and private, 1890–1948. (*From U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 2, Advance Sheets, p. 11, and Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 24, April 18, 1949.*)

The proportion of the total population enrolled in public high schools rose from 0.32 per cent in 1890 to 5 per cent in 1940. It is estimated that two-thirds or more of all young people of
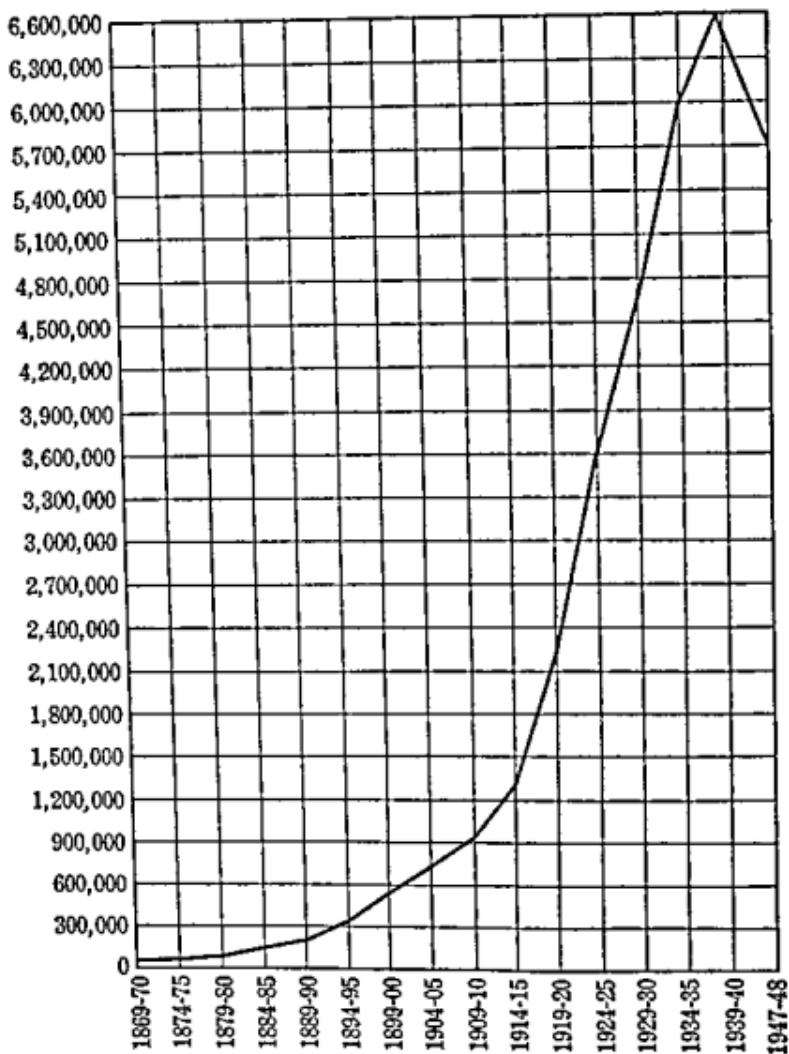
Fig. 7. Growth in enrollment in public secondary schools.

high-school age are now in some form of public or private secondary school. The drop in enrollment shown in Table XI from 1940 to 1947 was due to war conditions. According to an estimate made by the Office of Education, there should be 9,000,000 enrolled by 1965. The increase in the percentage of the total population of school age actually attending school is even more striking. This is seen in Table XII and also in Figs. 8 and 9.

TABLE XII. PERSONS ATTENDING SCHOOL AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION
5 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE, 1880–1948 [1]

1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1948
65.5	68.6	72.4	73.5	77.8	81.3	85.3	85.6

[1] Data for 1870–1930 from Statistical Summary of Education, 1935–1936, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 2, pp. 16–17; for 1940 from "Advance Statement of Statistics of State School Systems," U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1940; for 1948 from advance sheets of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D.C., April, 1949.

FIG. 8. Percentage increase in population, fourteen to seventeen years of age, and in secondary-school enrollment; public and private, 1890–1948. (*From U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 2, *Advance Sheets, p. 11, and Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 24, April 18, 1949.*)

Fig. 9. Percentage increases in population, eighteen to twenty-one years of age, and in college enrollment, 1890–1948. (*From U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 2, Advance Sheets, p. 11, and Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 24, April 18, 1949.*)

According to the Census of 1940 the median school year completed by persons twenty-five years and older was 8.4.

This means that the American people are convinced that education is a national asset and that it pays to keep children in school as long as possible. It means that the educational level demanded of citizens is higher than ever before; that, in order

to succeed today, it is more necessary for a boy or a girl to have a high-school education than it was in colonial times for one to know how to read and write. This fact, combined with the compulsory-attendance laws, the increasing age requirement for leaving school, and changes in the laws regarding employment of children, has operated to keep great numbers of boys and girls in school several years longer than formerly. This not only gives the school an opportunity for guidance such as it has never had, but places a definite responsibility upon it to provide adequate assistance.

6. *Elimination from School.* In spite of this great increase in the holding power of our public schools, there is still entirely too much wastage. The general changes in this elimination are shown by Table XIII, which gives the percentage of children at

TABLE XIII. Percentage of Total Population of Different Ages Attending School [1]

Ages	1910	1920	1930	1940	1948
5	17.0	18.8	20.0	18.0	21.6
6	52.1	63.3	66.3	69.1	93.4
7	75.0	83.3	89.4	93.2	97.4
8	82.7	88.5	94.1	95.1	98.8
9	86.2	90.4	95.6	96.1	98.7
10	90.0	93.0	97.1	95.6	98.6
11	91.2	93.5	97.5	95.6	98.3
12	89.8	93.2	97.1	95.6	98.1
13	88.8	92.5	96.5	95.4	97.0
14	81.2	86.3	92.9	92.5	94.8
15	68.3	72.9	84.7	87.6	90.6
16	50.6	50.8	66.3	78.4	79.6
17	35.3	34.6	47.9	59.0	62.8
18	22.6	21.7	30.7	35.0	35.9
19	14.4	13.8	19.8	22.8	17.9
20	8.4	8.3	13.1	12.5	5.0

[1] Abstract of Fifteenth Census, p. 262; Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1942, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1943; and advance sheets of the U.S. Office of Education.

various ages who attended school in 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940, and 1948. In 1907, Thorndike published a study of elimination in

certain selected schools, taking the data from the average enrollment for the years 1900–1904. In 1930, sixteen of the same cities were studied again, using the same technique employed by Thorndike. The changes found are shown in Table XIV and

TABLE XIV. Significant Changes in the Curve of Elimination since 1900 [1]

(Percentage of Retention at Various Grades)

Investigators	Grades								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Thorndike, 1900–1904...	79.7	68.9	54.8	41.2	32.0	18.3	10.9	7.7	6.0
Kline, 1928–1929...	94.0	90.2	87.1	82.3	77.3	74.3	53.9	37.0	28.7

[1] KLINE, E. J., Significant Changes in the Curve of Elimination since 1900, *Journal of Educational Research*, 26:608–616, April, 1933.

Fig. 10. The two curves show the contrast. In 1907, Thorndike calculated that 46 per cent of the children who began school never reached the seventh grade; 73 per cent never reached the ninth grade; and 92 per cent did not graduate from high school. In 1928–1929, 19 per cent only did not reach the seventh grade, 26 per cent did not reach the ninth grade, and 73 per cent did not graduate from high school. Since 1930, as shown in Table XI, the number attending the public high school has continued to increase with almost the same rapidity as it did during the ten years preceding. This reduction in elimination is also shown in Table XV where the elimination between grades 9 and 12 was reduced from 63 per cent in 1922 to 37 per cent in 1946. "One hundred per cent promotion" and strict enforcement of the compulsory-attendance laws have operated in many places to reduce almost to zero the dropping out from school below the age set for school leaving. Above this age elimination still is a problem. Changes in industry make it increasingly unnecessary for young people under eighteen or twenty to work. This throws an ever-increasing burden upon the schools. With the
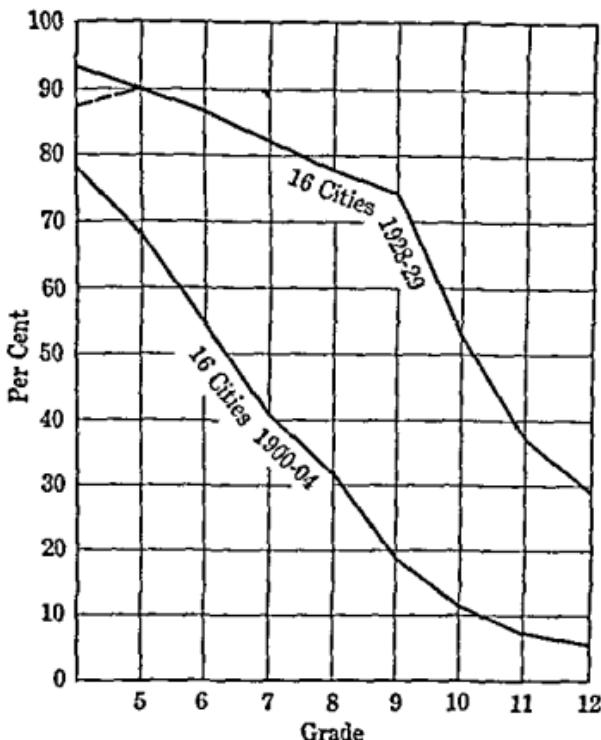
Fig. 10. Comparison of elimination, 1900–1904 and 1928–1929.

Table XV. Percentage Distribution of Pupils during the Last Four
Years of High School, 1922–1946 [1]

Year	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year
1922	39.1	27.4	19.2	14.3
1930	35.4	27.4	20.6	16.6
1938	31.3	27.1	22.6	19.0
1946	30.3	27.7	23.0	19.0

[1] U.S. Office of Education, "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946,"
Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, Chap. V, p. 15.

best of conditions, it is probably undesirable that all children
should remain in school through the high school; many do not
possess the ability to profit by such training as we have been
able to provide. But something must be done for these children.
Obviously, the school must so modify its program as to give

many more of these young people something that will benefit them. Under normal conditions, industry does not want them; the school must provide for them.

In any case, it is of the utmost importance that those who can benefit from our schools be not eliminated. The trouble with our present methods is that many who should be in school are not enrolled and some who are in school should not be there, at least as schools are now organized. Our schools are not at present organized in such a way that all of those who are best fitted to obtain an education are able to do so. This state of affairs calls for definite and very careful guidance, to the end that abilities may be conserved and success be assured by further education.

7. *Leisure Time.* One of the greatest problems arising out of the social, economic, and industrial conditions of our time is that of the wise use of time not spent in activities of the occupation. Most of our people are faced with shorter hours of labor. This may well be only four or five hours a day and five days a week. In such a situation, and even with hours of work as they now are, the problem of how to employ the use of our waking time is of vital importance not only for the individual but for society. Short hours of work do not exhaust the physical and mental resources of people as the ten- or fourteen-hour day did. The problem of leisure time is, at present, not wholly or even in large part a problem of "re-creation" in order that the work on the job may be done better. It is a problem involving the development of the entire individual. *Some of this time might well be utilized for the performance of citizenship activities.* The choice of ways by which such time may be used wisely is rendered difficult for any individual because of the many different ways in which one can use the time. The multiplicity of sources of amusement, of facilities for games, the development of centers of art, of music, of libraries, the opening of schools where skills of various kinds may be obtained, all these, by the very richness of the opportunities offered, increase the difficulty of choice and adjustment.

8. *Moral and Religious Conditions.* The effects of social, economic, and industrial change and development upon moral and religious life are difficult to measure, but we know that they are real and far-reaching. The church no longer occupies the place

of leadership it did formerly; religious activities are, in many cases, forced into the background; churches are struggling for existence; attendance at religious services has notably decreased. It may be true that the use of the radio has actually increased the number of people who listen to religious addresses and who thus, in reality, "attend church." This, however, does little to carry on the activities necessary to maintain a church or to support a united body of church workers. Many careful observers feel that the hold of religion upon the masses of people has very perceptibly decreased. Others feel that there never was a time when real religion was more clearly a part of the life and thoughts of men and women than now. Of one thing we are certain: religious customs have changed; the great majority of our people are far more liberal in their beliefs, more tolerant of those who differ from them than before; young people are thinking for themselves and refusing to accept religious dogma merely because it has been believed for centuries. In this atmosphere of controversy, of changing beliefs, of lack of belief, it is small wonder that young people are confused and often unable to adjust themselves satisfactorily. Wise assistance is needed. Much of that help must be given by the home and the church, but it is so intimately related to the entire personality of the individual that some responsibility must be assumed by teachers and counselors.

When we come to the moral side, we find the same changes, some of them so startling as to make us wonder whether our moral standards may not be weakening. Racketeering, graft, corruption are everywhere apparent, in politics, in business, in government—even in the church. Many men become wealthy and powerful not because of their contribution to society but because of clever dealing, influence, control of the political machine, or actual theft, intimidation, and murder. Our legal system is slow, cumbersome, and ineffective, and criminals not infrequently escape just punishment because they have money or influence or smart lawyers who specialize in evading the consequences of the law. Some of the old virtues, like industry, thrift, and honesty, have in many cases been the actual cause of poverty and suffering. Men have worked hard and long; they have been thrifty and saved money only to have the banks in which it was deposited fail, with a total loss to them. Or they

may have bought a house and, because of inability to make their payments, lost everything. All this not because they were not worthy, but because they were honest, thrifty, and industrious.

Standards of good conduct are continually changing. What was right once is no longer considered right; what was wrong once is now acceptable. No longer do we believe that conscience is an infallible guide in deciding what is right to do. Right conduct is determined not only by the motives of the actor but also by the effects of the act. In the complexity of modern life, it is often very difficult to determine the real effects of a given act, and this is what makes right decisions so hard. We need the enlightenment of facts and more facts about the effects of proposed action upon ourselves and upon others, before we can decide intelligently what to do.

It is, perhaps, significant that the results of the Mooney Check Lists (see Table XVI) indicate that the area Morals and Religion ranks lowest of all the areas in percentage of problems checked. That is, the individuals in the different groups who marked the lists seemed to be less conscious of problems in this area than in any other area. This was also true of the junior-high-school group if we consider the problems marked in the Miscellaneous area that related to morals and religion. The area next to the bottom in rank was Home and Family. Two opposite conclusions might be drawn from these data: (1) Young people are well adjusted to morals and religion and to home, since they apparently have relatively few problems in the areas. (2) Young people have little consciousness of morals or moral obligations; church and religion are not vital forces in their lives; they have little trouble with parents or home because they are not important guiding or restraining influences in their lives. In other words, young people are not conscious of problems in these areas because they have little sense of moral obligation and little restraint. The mounting delinquency among youth might bear out the second conclusion. The very fact of the lack of consciousness of problems in the areas may well be one of the major problems of education and of guidance. Although moral training as such may not be considered to be a part of guidance, there is great need for guidance as organized assistance in helping individuals choose wisely the line of action that they will follow.

9. *The Changed Philosophy of Education.* One of the most important changes, as related to guidance, is the changed or changing philosophy of education and the place of the child in this process. The old idea, inherited largely from our Puritan forebears, was that education is "the process of passing on to the young the cultural heritage of the race"; it is "the process of inculcating in the young those habits, skills, ideas, and knowledges that are necessary to enable them to take their place in adult society." The central figure in this is the school, especially the teacher; the pupil is the recipient and, as far as possible, should be docile, passive, obedient. He should have little voice in what he is to do or to learn. Discipline is the process of preventing behavior that would interfere with this attitude of docility. Curriculums are organized by the school and methods developed with the purpose of molding the pupil into the kind of individual who would be a good citizen and an exemplary person.

In the last thirty years an entirely new concept of the place of the child has been creeping in. This is largely the result of the thinking of John Dewey. This concept places the child at the center and is concerned primarily with his development, with what he *is now* rather than what he *may become* or what society may demand. His needs for personal development, his interests and desires, are dominant. His inner impulses for action are of extreme importance and should not be unduly restrained. He should have a large part in decisions regarding what he should do, even in what he should study. He should not be made to do what he does not want to do. Failures are undesirable and should be avoided; since punishments and restraints are negative they should either not be used or at least be minimized; one hundred per cent promotion is the rule.

We are not here attempting to evaluate the two philosophies; each has its strong points and its weak points; we are merely suggesting some implications for guidance in the changing concepts. Probably the most important implication of the new concept is the emphasis upon the enlarged place of the individual in choosing his own way of life and his own activities. Even very young children are allowed and sometimes encouraged to make choices that often are very unfortunate. When the choice does not seem desirable, instead of arbitrarily refusing to allow the

child to do what he has chosen to do, or preventing him by force, we try to help him see the unwisdom of his choice; we do not try to compel him to do anything. This emphasizes the fundamental purpose of guidance—helping the individual to make wise choices —and it shows the necessity for adequate guidance in the very early years of life in order to secure, as far as possible, the basis for wise choices.

Another result of the changed philosophy is the removal from the pupil of many of the old incentives to study or to do work of a quality that is equal to his ability. This presents another very difficult problem for guidance. Still another implication is the change in situations involving maladjustments and frustrations. The pupil promoted under the one hundred per cent promotion idea is often seriously maladjusted to the grade to which he is promoted because he lacks the skills and the knowledge necessary to succeed; this is a frequent cause of frustration. Frustrations also occur frequently for no other reason than the necessity for the pupil to be "his own self-starter"; to make his own choices. The prevailing atmosphere, which he breathes in school and home, that he should not be made to do the things he does not want to do is a definite source of frustration in situations that, under the old philosophy, were accepted willingly and without question. These frustrations are the source of many very difficult problems for teachers and counselors. The acceptance of the new philosophy very strongly emphasizes the need for guidance from early childhood at least to adulthood. Probably the chief problem for guidance is that the new philosophy is accepted in principle but the organization and the methods of the school are still dominated by the old philosophy; it is like new wine in old bottles.

10. *The Problems of Minority Groups.* The difficulties encountered by minority groups, the many discriminations against them in educational and occupational opportunities, and the social distinctions they meet make guidance services of great importance for them. They need wise and sympathetic counsel that will help them to see the real opportunities that are open to them, to face the situation as it is, and to know the best methods by which they can avoid or minimize the obstacles that often loom large in their consciousness.

11. *Necessity for a Changed Social Program.* These far-reaching changes in social, economic, industrial, and educational conditions will necessitate radical changes in our social program. What this changed program will be no one can tell with certainty, but some essential elements in it are clearly described by Klein.[3]

A social welfare program adapted to these considerations would include then, by way of a brief résumé, some such items as the following:

1. A continuous program of Federal public employment.

2. Completion of a system of social insurances including those of old age; the extension of unemployment insurance, etc., to all occupations; and the development of insurance against loss of income from sickness.

3. A reorganization of the educational and vocational program which, by a combination of schooling and apprenticeship, would keep all persons under twenty out of the field of employment competition.

4. An organized plan for the demobilization of, and special employment opportunities for, the age group from fifty-five to sixty-five, or even seventy.

5. A reorganization of the entire system of taxation which would make possible:

a. Taxing where taxing capacity exists,

b. Expenditure where services are needed,

c. A concentration of taxation under the Federal government in such a way that the issues raised as between services and economic system can become clear-cut and intelligible for discussion.

6. Administrative reorganization of relations between Federal, state, and local governments so as to make possible the correlation between employment, social insurance benefits, and welfare services, regardless of state and local boundaries and in full recognition of the fact that intranational migration requires far-reaching administrative adjustments.

[3] KLEIN, PHILIP, Adapting Programs of Social Welfare to a Changing Population, Population Trends in Programs of Social Welfare, *The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly,* pp. 98, 99. Reprint from Vol. 18, Nos. 3 and 4, October, 1940. (*Used by special permission of the publisher, The Milbank Memorial Fund.*)

III. Appeal of Pseudo Sciences

Astrology, Numerology, Physiognomy, and Other Misleading
Cults

A. *Purpose of the Discussion*

The widespread use by otherwise intelligent people of some
or all of the pseudo sciences reveals a deep-seated feeling of need
for help and at the same time a danger so great and extensive as
to call for concerted action by all who have at heart the interests
of those who are seeking help.

Although an extended description of all the methods and de-
vices that might properly come under the head of pseudo sci-
ences is not desirable, or even possible, we shall here attempt
to consider the claims of a few of these better known and un-
doubtedly alluring methods. They are alluring because they
claim to be able to list and classify types of individuals in such
a way as to provide a quick and reliable method of discovering
qualities of character and special aptitudes for certain occupa-
tions. If this could be done, much time and money could ob-
viously be saved and the process of guidance be much more
sure. This is one of the reasons why so many people pay large
sums of money to these practitioners for advice. It is estimated
that well over $5,000,000 is spent each year in this way. The
fortuneteller and the astrologer never fail to secure a following.
Human nature is prone to follow anyone who claims to have a
short-cut method to wealth, happiness, or success. Anyone who
can really do this deserves to have a following.

In this discussion we shall not attempt to prove that these
methods are entirely false. This would, indeed, be difficult. It
may even be conceded that the stars do influence our lives, that
our names do affect us, that, to some extent, character and
characteristics are revealed by handwriting and by physical ap-
pearance. In fact, this is not only a common assumption but
in some respects it is both plausible and reasonable. We know
too little about so-called "psychic" manifestations to warrant
any positive conclusions that they are impossible. Although
most cases where future events are foretold or hidden character-
istics are accurately described may well be attributed to chance
or to the cleverness of the performer, there remain many well-

authenticated occurrences that we cannot yet explain. These make complete skepticism undesirable. The question under consideration is not whether these methods have any truth in them, but whether as practiced commercially they are sufficiently accurate and reliable to warrant their use in guidance.

These methods may be classified roughly under three heads. (1) Attempts to discover and predict abilities, aptitudes, and general characteristics by the study of elements in the universe outside the individual that are presumed to produce such personal qualities or at least to indicate their presence. The two chosen as illustrations are astrology and numerology. (2) Attempts to discover physical correlates of abilities, aptitudes, and characteristics or to find the relationship between bodily structure, the configuration of the face, the texture of the skin, the shape of the hands, etc., and these personal qualities. Illustrations of these are phrenology, physiognomy, and palmistry; the first two of these will be described. (3) Attempts to discover abilities and characteristics through observation of what an individual does or has done. Some of these are graphology, drawing, and finger painting. The first of these is the only one that is used commercially to any extent, and will be described here. Drawing and finger painting are extensively used in the scientific study of personality traits. Reference is made to this in Chap. IX.

B. Influence of Elements in the Universe

I. ASTROLOGY

Probably one of the oldest methods still in use is that of astrology. Astrologists base their claim upon the influence of the sun, moon, and stars on human life, especially the influence of certain combinations of the heavenly bodies at the time of the birth of an individual.

a. Claims of Astrology. Given the year, the day, and the hour of birth, astrologers claim to be able to tell not only what your character and abilities are, but also what will happen to you at certain times. The early history of the race is full of instances showing belief in the influence of the heavenly bodies upon human life and upon nature in general. Even now, many people are certain that the moon does exercise a positive influence upon the weather and upon the germination of seeds. We still speak

of a "wet moon" and a "dry moon," and of the influence of the "dog star."

b. The Question at Issue. It would be rash, indeed, for any-one to say that the sun, moon, and stars have no influence upon human life. We must admit that they often profoundly affect our lives in many ways. How many romances blossom under the "tropic moon," how often inspiration comes from the "star-studded Syrian skies!" "The heavens declare the glory of God." But the stars have no monopoly over such influences; storms, cloudless skies, forests, rolling hills, the Grand Canyon, all are sources of untold influence. There is abundant evidence that sunspots bring about certain conditions on the earth. Although there is a great difference of opinion among scientists regarding the extent of the influence of sunspots and other astronomical phenomena, it is generally accepted that they are the cause of many electrical disturbances. Some contend that the fecundity of rabbits has a direct relation to sunspots. A group of eminent geographers believe that climatic conditions are the chief cause of racial differences, and that climatic cycles have measurably affected the entire history of the human race, not only in physical ways but in the development of social, economic, and political ideas and ideals. Some research studies seem to indicate that there is a positive and consistent relationship between the month of birth and intelligence, those born in August being superior to those born in February. Later studies show that these differences are not statistically significant. Moreover, when the economic status of parents is kept constant, the differences tend to disappear. There is no evidence to indicate that month of birth causes or influences intelligence. It is more probable that the intelligence of the parents influences the month of birth of the children and so is the cause of any differences that may have been found. The question is not whether the heavenly bodies have such an influence but (1) how great and how specific this influence is and (2) how accurately we can determine in advance what this influence will be and what will be the effect of the influence.

c. Evidence against Astrology. This, then, becomes merely a question of fact, of evidence. What are the facts? Has astrology proved its claims? We cannot here discuss in detail all the

specific evidence but can merely suggest certain significant questions.

(1) Astrology has been practiced for many centuries—at least from the time of the Egyptians. If it were reliable, would we not have recorded sufficient evidences of its success to prove it? Outside of certain unreliable records, acknowledged to be more or less mythical and legendary, history records no instances where astrology has proved itself a reliable means of prognosis for individuals or for nations. The oracle at Delphi and the Roman auguries have as just claims as has astrology. Successful practice over so many centuries should have resulted in its general acceptance. Astrology is, at best, on no more solid ground than it was three thousand years ago, as far as evidence of its efficiency is concerned.

(2) It is also possible to make some judgment regarding its efficiency at the present time. Astrological charts are carefully worked out and spread broadcast; offers to read character and to forecast events are readily given. It is not unusual for one to receive partial character readings from astrologers who secure in some way the date of birth of the recipient. This is accompanied by the offer to make a complete reading for a stated sum of money, if the hour of the day, as well as the day, month, and year are given. These statements are usually couched in very general terms, are usually favorable, and do not hit the facts sufficiently well to warrant the acceptance of the method. Astrology must be regarded as very unreliable and untrustworthy for purposes of guidance.

2. NUMEROLOGY

a. Basis of Numerology. Another common and very fascinating theory is numerology. This is based upon the idea that surrounding us on all sides are many different kinds of vibrations, not measurable at present by any known instruments. These vibrations emanate from numbers, each number having its own peculiar vibration. Each letter of the alphabet has its own number correlate and hence its own vibration. The combination of letters in your name, translated into numbers and added together to make a final number, reveals the vibration that controls your life.

b. Method of Numerology. There are several systems of numerology that vary among themselves, but the one used in the illustration is one of the popular ones.

NUMBER EQUIVALENTS OF LETTERS

Numbers	Letters
1	A— J— S
2	B— K— T
3	C— L— U
4	D— M— V
5	E— N— W
6	F— O— X
7	G— P— Y
8	H— Q— Z
9	I— R

The name Mary Helen Smith is translated into numbers as illustrated below:

```
Letters:  M A R Y   H E L E N   S M I T H
Numbers:  4 1 9 7   8 5 3 5 5   1 4 9 2 8 = 71 = 8
Totals:    21 = 3     26 = 8      24 = 6 = 17 = 8
```

The numbers are added together and the resulting sum is again added until the final number is one digit. Thus the number indicating the vibration of the name Mary Helen Smith is 8. This number has certain predetermined meanings which affect and reveal the characteristics and potentialities of Mary and affect her development. Thus the name of a person has a very profound effect upon his future. It follows that names should be very carefully chosen. Numerologists recognize astrology as a valid theory. Consequently, the name of a person should be chosen with reference to the vibrations caused by astral bodies; they should harmonize if the life is to be successful.

Each day of the week has its own vibrations and indicates for each person the favorable time for beginning an undertaking. Each city likewise has its vibrations, and one should choose for residence a city whose vibrations correspond or harmonize with his own as indicated by his name. In choosing a wife or husband, harmony in vibrations is also essential if the marriage is to be successful.

Since names are translatable into numbers, it follows that one's vibrations can be changed by changing one's name. Thus Mary

Helen Smith may change her name in various ways. If she changes her name, she changes her vibrations. Several changes with their number equivalents are given for illustration.

```
M A R Y   H.   S M Y T H
4 1 9 7   8   1 4 7 2 8 = 6

M.   H E L E N   S M I T H
4   8 5 3 5 5   1 4 9 2 8 = 9

M A R I E   H E L E N E   S M Y T H E
4 1 9 9 5   8 5 3 5 5 5   1 4 7 2 8 5 = 5
```

Thus her vibrations might be 5, 6, 8, or 9. If Mary is wise and if she is very much in love with a certain young man whose vibrations do not harmonize with Mary Helen Smith, she will change her name in such a way as to make them harmonize!

c. *Fallacy of Numerology.* This "ology," fascinating as a parlor pastime, is quite unsupported by scientific evidence. That our names do or may affect us is undoubtedly true. Combinations such as Pearl Button, Ima Hogg, Hickory Nutt, Baldwin Apple, Augusta Wind, imposed upon helpless children by parents with a perverted sense of humor must be sources of constant irritation and to a measurable degree affect their entire personality. Likewise, one may be inspired by some great name and seek to live up to it. But to act on the belief that names, through numerical equivalents set up, are associated with certain cosmic vibrations that determine our dispositions, capacities, health, and happiness would be more than useless; it would be disastrous.

C. Physical Correlates of Personal Qualities

1. PHRENOLOGY

a. *Basis of Phrenology.* Another widely advertised method is that of phrenology. This is based upon the belief that the shape and size of the head and the configurations of the skull influence or reveal character. This idea became very prominent during the first decade of the past century. It was widely advertised and was accepted by many prominent men, among them Horace Mann. Gall, who founded the method, studied the skulls of many men who were known to have certain characteristics and abilities, and from the similarities thus discovered developed his

system. He charted the skull into regions that were supposed to represent certain specific brain functions or "faculties." He thus claimed, by an examination of the head of any individual, to be able to list his faculties and to give him advice regarding his future.

b. Claims of Phrenology. Modern phrenology has gone far beyond its founder in the analysis of faculties and in its claims. It now distinguishes temperaments as (1) vital temperament, (2) motive temperament, and (3) mental temperament. It lists and locates at a particular place on the skull such faculties as amativeness, cautiousness, combativeness, firmness, form, size, language, and causality. In all, there are thirty-seven of these faculties named and located. It claims to reveal your character and your abilities, to give help in the choice of occupation, to assist in the regulation of diet, and to indicate the type of person whom you should marry. All of these are very important and phrenology would be a godsend if it could give us reliable information. The question again is, has it proved itself to be reliable?

c. Facts Disproving the Underlying Theory. One method of approach is to examine the basis for the method. It is based upon the theory that the mind is divided into faculties, that these faculties are definitely localized in the brain, and that their location is approximately the same in all individuals. Figure 11 is an attempt to show, in a rough way, the location of these faculties in contrast with the localization of brain function as commonly accepted.

In this chart, the human brain and the enclosing skull are shown. *A* and *B* represent the location of a few of the faculties listed by the phrenologist. Thus the language faculty is under the eye, veneration and firmness at the top of the head, destructiveness just over the ear, vitativeness behind and below the ear, etc. The presence in large degree of any of these faculties is indicated by an enlargement at the point indicated; a small amount of the faculty or its entire absence is indicated by a depression. This is all very clear and very definite and should be capable of proof. Fortunately, psychology, surgery, and anatomy, working together, have furnished us with fairly reliable information upon which to work in judging the accuracy of these statements. There is localization of brain function, but it is of an entirely different character from that claimed by the phre-

nologists. Faculties do not exist; there is nothing to indicate that parts of the brain represent the presence of anything like what the phrenologist calls a "faculty." In Fig. 11, *C* shows the human brain and the location of some of its functions. These charts indicate that the sensory area, to which the nerve impulses originating in the various sense organs come, is not adjacent to or directly connected by position with the motor area. The sensory area, in general (15 to 18 in *C*) is behind and below the motor area (1 to 14 in *C*). The motor area, from which the nerve impulse goes to the muscles, is in front of and above the sensory area. These areas are all connected by associative fibers so that coordination of action may take place, but the connection is by these associative fibers and not by position.

Let us now take one of the "faculties" shown in *A* and *B* and see how it would work out in *C*. The language faculty would, by its very nature, be a combination of seeing words, of hearing words, of writing words, of speaking words. These are, in turn, made up of sensations and movements. They are sensations of hearing, of seeing, of touch, and of bodily sense; they also involve movements of the eyes, of the various parts of the throat and mouth, of the fingers, arm, and shoulder. To have a faculty of language and to have it located immediately under the eye, it would be necessary to have all these motor and sensory areas together under the eye. A glance at the diagram will show that this is impossible. Not only are the sensory and motor areas separate, but the visual, auditory, and bodily sense areas are widely scattered. According to many authorities, the motor area is still more definitely localized so that the places where the movements of the eyes, of the fingers, of the toes, of the arm, of the vocal organs originate are each in a separate area. They are all, as we have said, connected, but this connection is internal.

Even the localization of function is in doubt. There is considerable evidence that the function controlled by a certain center is taken over by other portions of the cortex after the center is destroyed. It is also probable that the layers of the cortex may differ in their functions. The facts seem to be that the destruction of specific regions of the cortex results in the loss of certain specific responses. Later these responses are regained although the center destroyed is not rebuilt. There are many theories which attempt to explain these facts, but the
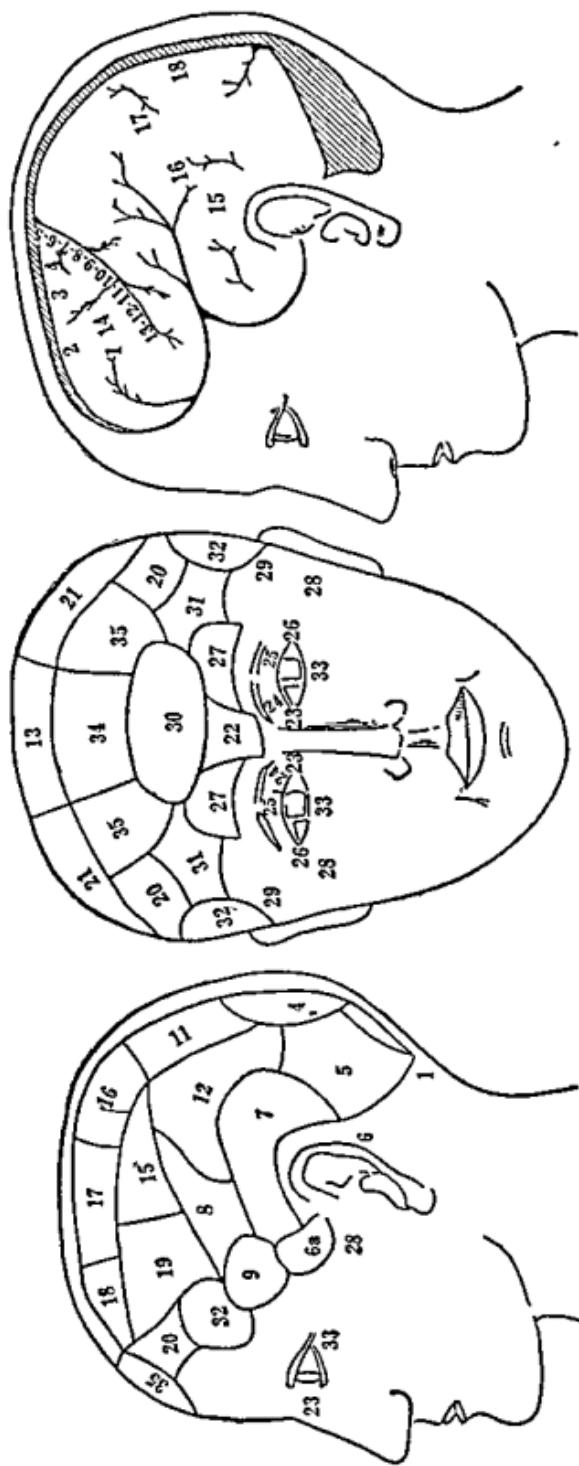
Fig. 11. Location of "faculties" contrasted with localization of brain function. The key to the numbers is given on page 45.

true relation between the behavior of man and his nervous structure is not fully explained.[4]

We can thus see clearly that the theory upon which phrenology is based is entirely false. There can be no such localization of faculties as this theory demands. Bumps or depressions cannot mean the presence or the absence of certain so-called "faculties."

d. Test of Time. The second line of approach to the determination of the validity of phrenology is that of actual experience. Phrenology has utterly failed to establish its claims by experimental methods. There is no collection of authenticated, reliable data, acceptable to disinterested investigators, upon which phrenologists can base their case. This, considering the more than one hundred years since it was founded, should be sufficient proof that the theory is not correct. In the face of this lack of evidence it seems hardly worth while to present any further data to disprove the claims, although this can readily be done.

KEY TO NUMBERS IN FIG. 11

A and *B*

		C
1. Amativeness	18. Wit	Motor Area:
4. Adhesiveness	19. Imitation	1. Motor speech
5. Combativeness	20. Individuality	2. Writing speech
6. Destructiveness	21. Form	3. Head and eyes
6a. Alimentativeness	22. Size	4. Toes
7. Secretiveness	23. Weight	5. Foot
8. Acquisitiveness	24. Color	6. Leg
9. Constructiveness	25. Locality	7. Thigh
10. Love of approbation	26. Number	8. Trunk
11. Cautiousness	27. Order	9. Shoulders
12. Benevolence	28. Eventuality	10. Arms
13. Conscientiousness	29. Time	11. Fingers
14. Firmness	30. Tune	12. Head
15. Hope	31. Language	13. Face
16. Wonder	32. Comparison	14. Hips
17. Ideality	33. Causality	Sense Area:
		15. Hearing
		16. Auditory speech
		17. Visual speech
		18. Vision

[4] MONROE, WALTER S., JAMES C. DeVOSS, and GEORGE W. REAGAN, "Educational Psychology," p. 48, Doubleday & Company, Inc., New York, 1930. (*Used by special permission of the publishers.*)

e. Unreliability of Phrenology. What has been said in no way proves that phrenologists do not sometimes diagnose correctly, nor does it prove that they never do good. There are many instances in which the phrenologist has correctly listed many of the characteristics and abilities of individuals. It is doubtful, however, whether the phrenologist depends entirely upon the configuration of the skull to draw his conclusions. A well-known psychologist once made an actual trial to see whether the phrenologist actually did "read the bumps." He did not shave for several days, put on old, ragged clothes, and presented a generally disreputable, dirty appearance when he first presented himself to the phrenologist. He paid his money and had his character read. He took the reading and suggestions with him. A week or two after this, he again presented himself to the same man, but this time he was clean shaven, attired in neat, well-fitting clothing, and presented a generally attractive and prosperous appearance. Again he had his character read, but it was entirely different from the first reading, and the advice and suggestions were also quite different. It is true, this phrenologist may have been a charlatan, but such experiences have been too numerous to dismiss without consideration. It is quite probable that in many cases the phrenologist is honest and thinks he reads from the head, but is unconsciously influenced by general appearance and by the reactions of the subject being examined. In any case, it is clear that we cannot depend upon phrenology to give us reliable data.

2. PHYSIOGNOMY

a. Basis of Physiognomy. The methods that use anatomical structure for obtaining data about individuals are many and varied. They are more or less related to phrenology in some respects but do not depend upon localization of brain function to the same extent. Probably the oldest of these is physiognomy, which was formulated by Lavater about 1775. It was based upon the assumption that qualities of mind were expressed in the face. This method has been revived and greatly extended during the past twenty-five years and now has many firm advocates. Their general beliefs are so similar and their methods so nearly alike that no attempt will be made to distinguish clearly between them. In general, they are based upon the theory that there are

physical correlates for every mental state and that these physical correlates are constant; that, just as joy and fear clearly reveal themselves in facial expression, in voice and bodily action, so firmness, brutality, judgment, reasoning ability, and executive ability show themselves in more or less permanent ways in the structure of the body and in the various facial characteristics. Variations in abilities, in temperament, and in general characteristics manifest themselves in texture of the skin, in color of eyes and hair, in shape of the chin, nose, and mouth, in the profile, in the size and shape of hands and feet, and in a variety of other ways. · The claim of this theory to validity is based upon a study of hundreds of men and women over a period of many years. Its advocates affirm that they have first found the characteristics of these individuals and have then charted the various parts of the anatomy of each, especially the parts of the head and face, and have thus selected certain criteria that can be depended upon to reveal characteristics of people wherever they are met. One system charts the face as well as the skull and allots to each "region" a special characteristic. Another depends more upon the convexity· or concavity of the profile and upon the texture of the skin. They all make much of combinations of anatomical features in the determination of characteristics.

These "systems" should not be confused with the careful investigations made by Sheldon, Stevens, and others [5] of the relationships of types of bodily tissues to personality characteristics and temperament. Some positive relationships were found in these investigations, but they were quite small.

b. Plausibility of the Claims. These methods have a greater appeal even than phrenology because everyone depends more or less upon the appearance of his fellows in judging character and in determining ability. We speak of the pugnacious face, the broad, intellectual forehead, the sensitive nostrils, the artistic fingers and eyebrows, etc., etc. Again, there can be little doubt that what we are does tend to reveal itself in our outward appearance. Habitual cheerfulness results in lines on the face and set of the lips that reveal the disposition. We can usually distinguish the pessimist from the optimist. All these are matters

---

[5] SHELDON, W. H., and S. S. STEVENS, "The Varieties of Temperament: A Psychology of Constitutional Differences," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

of common experience. The authors of the methods of character analysis described above claim that they have merely refined our usual procedure and made it more scientific and certain. If they have been able to do this, they surely have made a great contribution. Actual experience with one of these systems has convinced me that many times the correct diagnosis has been made. Even the present occupation of men who were perfect strangers to the operator has been correctly given, not once but a number of times. The method sounds so plausible and so fully agrees with the experience of many that it is no wonder that it has so many strong adherents. And yet common experience often leads us astray: the exigencies of business and the conventions of social life often compel us to assume facial expressions which we do not feel but which are indicated as useful or which are expected—a "poker face" is often very useful in business as well as in cards. A smile and a cordial greeting are often necessary in greeting guests or customers if we are to retain friends or to sell goods. These expressions, if used often, will make the same lines on the face as though they were expressions of real feeling. The authors of the methods or systems seem to think that these factors are not important.

c. *Evidences of Success.* In discussing the evidences of their success, we should say that the founders of these systems claim to have followed thousands of cases that have been diagnosed by them and know that the method is reliable. They have never presented this evidence to disinterested judges, however, for confirmation. This, in itself, looks suspicious, but is not definite proof of its unreliability. Hull [6] has brought together the results of many tests scientifically constructed and a number of experiments that bear directly upon the problem before us. Among the most important investigations were the following:

1. Judgments of character based on photographs.
2. Judgments of practical intelligence based on photographs.
3. Evidences of blond and brunet coloring as signs of temperament.
4. Judgments based on seeing the subjects in person.
5. Evidence as to significance of convex and concave profile.
6. Dimensions of the head as signs of aptitude.

[6] HULL, CLARK L., "Aptitude Testing," pp. 111–138, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1928.

All but one of these experiments showed nothing that could be relied upon as evidence of the prognostic value of the methods under consideration. Usually low positive correlations were obtained, but the probable error was in all cases so large as to render the predictive value worthless. This means that in many cases there was a clear and direct correspondence between the judgments or estimates of the different people regarding the trait or characteristic, but that the cases in which the judgments did not agree were so numerous that we cannot be sure that there would be any general agreement at all if a sufficiently large number of people were included in the experiment. In some cases, even small negative correlations were found. Dimensions of the head seemed to offer possibilities of value, but even this was very slight. The number of subjects investigated in these experiments was small, and it is barely possible that further experiments on a more extended scale would reverse the findings reported by Hull. It is significant that all the results point in the same direction—against the value of these methods as practiced commercially. It is still further significant that in no case has a promoter of one of these systems himself conducted such experiments. Personal observation of the methods cannot fail to convince one that the operators are extremely clever and that very often, at least, they are thoroughly convinced of the validity of their methods. There is left in the mind of the impartial observer, however, the grave doubt whether the accuracy of the prognosis, when it proves to be accurate, is due to the system used or to the expertness of the operator in reading various signs of character not listed in the system. The operators are usually expert questioners and strong on the sympathetic side. Whether this is the true explanation or not, there is strong probability that it accounts for some of the correct diagnoses.

Another point of considerable significance is that the practitioners do not usually claim to be able to judge the abilities and characteristics of immature persons as accurately as they can those of adults; this is because the shape of the face and hands change and other bodily characteristics are altered with approaching maturity of body. Since our principal problem in guidance is with the immature, these methods, even if valid for adults, would give little help in predicting the future abilities of the students.

Some of the methods are made more plausible because of the fact that bodily structure, configuration of the face, texture of the skin, as well as types of metabolism, often have a pronounced and far-reaching effect upon the individual. This effect seems to be greater upon personality traits and temperament than upon abilities and aptitudes. This indicates that a relationship exists and that it is an important one. The marvelous skills that have been developed in plastic surgery and orthodontia make it possible to change the shape of the jaw, the expression of the mouth, the shape of the nose, and the entire configuration of the face. These changes no doubt may have a great effect upon the individual. The chief difficulty is that no one can predict what the actual effect will be upon any given individual. A beautiful woman, a handsome man, does not always have a beautiful character or a good disposition. There can be no doubt that a misshapen body or a repulsive face has a very real effect upon the individual but this effect may be either harmful or it may be salutary. Some of the strongest, most beautiful characters have accompanied or even actually been caused by disfigurements. The effect that any bodily characteristic, whether pleasant or unpleasant, has upon a person depends not upon its ugliness or beauty but upon the reaction of the individual to it. This cannot be predicted with any degree of accuracy.

d. Inaccuracy of the Fundamental Assumption. Another even more serious objection is the doubt whether there are such things as types of temperament true of all people in all situations; whether there are general traits possessed by people and manifested in all situations regardless of the differences in the situations. This is fully discussed in Chaps. VIII and IX and need not be repeated. If this contention is true, there could be very little value in the methods that use physiological or anatomical signs as a basis for determining character.

D. Observation

1. GRAPHOLOGY

a. Basic Assumption. Another widely advertised method of analysis is graphology, or the "science" of handwriting analysis. This bases its validity on the assumption that the characteristics, abilities, and aptitudes of people are revealed unmistakably in their handwriting. This method, also, has a basis in common

experience and thus exercises a powerful appeal over many. What a person is, is shown to a greater or less extent by what he does and how he does it. The movements of the hand in writing must be determined to some degree by the thoughts, the feelings, the "temperament" of the individual. Further, experts can readily distinguish between the handwriting of different people, no matter how nearly alike the form of the letters may seem to the untrained observer. The problem is merely to determine the degree to which characteristics are revealed in the handwriting and whether this follows certain invariable laws.

b. Claims of Graphologists. The claims of graphologists show clearly their belief that character, ability, and temperament are fully revealed in handwriting. They claim to have developed the system by careful analysis and measurement of thousands of specimens of the handwriting of men and women whose characters and abilities are known to all. Some graphologists call themselves "personal efficiency experts" and do a thriving business. Some advertisements of one of them are given to show the general character of their claims.

Have your character and personality analyzed. Know your weak points. Utilize your strong qualities. Develop latent abilities. Know the character of your friends and acquaintances. Make the most out of your life and opportunities.

The personal analysis service is graded in amount and costs as follows:

Rate—one-half cent per word.

1. Character cameos—100 words. Accurate sketches in miniature, 50 cents.
2. Personal typewritten analysis—a more intimate characterization, 200 words, helpful and true, $1.
3. Descriptive (lesson) personal typewritten analysis—in greater detail with many signs pointed out and interpreted, 400 to 500 words or longer, as ordered, $2 to $5.
4. Thorough personal diagnosis with vocational résumé—800 to 1,000 words. Send stamped envelope for particulars, $5.
5. Extended descriptive comparative personal diagnosis with vocational suggestions, 1,500 to 2,000 words, made from several scripts written over a period of years, $10.

One of these graphologists adds a further "astounding offer":

A Symposium Analysis

This is the most thorough self-examination possible to obtain. Your personal data is furnished to six of the foremost analysts in the United States and scientific analyses will be rendered by each one, working separately and independently of all the others. You will be carefully measured by astrology, numerology, psychometry, palmistry, phrenology, and graphology. This combination is worth one hundred dollars to any progressive man or woman. This service, in combination offered exclusively by Mr. _____ for $50.

These samples reveal great cleverness in advertising and a commendable (?) confidence in the accuracy of the analyses. Certainly if the claims are valid no guidance worker can afford to do without these invaluable aids to the discovery of character and aptitudes.

c. Factual Evidence. An examination of the analyses made by these men reveals the fact that, for the most part, they resort to very general statements that might apply to many different types of people and that they often so qualify their specific statements as to make it difficult to know what they do mean.

Fortunately, we have a few experiments, carefully conducted, that may help us in the evaluation of the accuracy of the method. Hull reports three of these.[7]

In 1906 Binet found that certain selected graphologists could distinguish sex fairly well from an examination of handwriting. General intelligence was also distinguished in the same way, although not with complete accuracy. Experimental research indicates that types of handwriting have some value in distinguishing certain personality traits and temperaments. However, the relationships are small and somewhat difficult to determine with accuracy.

Hull and Montgomery, in 1919, and Lois E. Brown, in 1921, selected certain of the character traits commonly listed by graphologists as associated with traits of handwriting, that could be objectively measured. Some of these character traits were bashfulness, ambition, pride, forcefulness, perseverance, and reserve. The subjects were first rated on each of these character traits by a number of intimate friends. Next, their handwriting was carefully analyzed. The results were entirely negative.

[7] Hull, *op. cit.*, pp. 147–151.

Nearly all the correlations were less than 0.20. None was even as high as 0.50. The largest correlations were one of −0.45 and one of +0.38 but in these cases the probable error was so great as to make the results untrustworthy. The results of these experiments do not warrant our placing any confidence in the methods under consideration; rather, they cast serious doubt upon their validity.

Although not denying that handwriting does reveal certain characteristics, we are forced to say that the evidence presented does not substantiate the claims of its advocates. We cannot depend upon graphology to give us worth-while, accurate data regarding individuals.

E. Danger of Short-cut Methods

1. *Distortion of Facts.* The methods described in this chapter are fairly representative of the many systems of analysis founded on the theory of "signs" and based upon a more or less mystical interpretation of human life. They each have some basis in fact, but we are forced by the evidence to say that they all have so distorted this factual basis and so magnified it that their conclusions are no longer reliable.

2. *Appeal of Advertisements.* Reputable papers and magazines are full of cleverly worded advertisements of these so-called "experts," and there is a compelling appeal in their arguments. Human nature is too prone to seek the short-cut process, in America especially. We continually chase the rainbow; we never cease hoping to get something for nothing.

3. *Necessity for Individual Study.* Every careful teacher and guidance worker should be on his guard against these methods. Up to the present time, no reliable short-cut method has been discovered or devised to enable us to analyze the complexities of human character. We still are forced to the long and often tedious process of individual investigation. We should be profoundly thankful that this is true, for success in the field of guidance depends upon the degree to which we keep our eyes fixed upon the individual and his own peculiar needs.

IV. Necessity for Providing Guidance

1. *Need for Guidance from the Standpoint of the Individual.* The amazing and rapid increase in the complexity of industrial

A SYMPOSIUM ANALYSIS

This is the most thorough self-examination possible to obtain. Your personal data is furnished to six of the foremost analysts in the United States and scientific analyses will be rendered by each one, working separately and independently of all the others. You will be carefully measured by astrology, numerology, psychometry, palmistry, phrenology, and graphology. This combination is worth one hundred dollars to any progressive man or woman. This service, in combination offered exclusively by Mr. _____ for $50.

These samples reveal great cleverness in advertising and a commendable (?) confidence in the accuracy of the analyses. Certainly if the claims are valid no guidance worker can afford to do without these invaluable aids to the discovery of character and aptitudes.

c. *Factual Evidence.* An examination of the analyses made by these men reveals the fact that, for the most part, they resort to very general statements that might apply to many different types of people and that they often so qualify their specific statements as to make it difficult to know what they do mean.

Fortunately, we have a few experiments, carefully conducted, that may help us in the evaluation of the accuracy of the method. Hull reports three of these.[7]

In 1906 Binet found that certain selected graphologists could distinguish sex fairly well from an examination of handwriting. General intelligence was also distinguished in the same way, although not with complete accuracy. *Experimental research indicates that types of handwriting have some value in distinguishing certain personality traits and temperaments. However, the relationships are small and somewhat difficult to determine with accuracy.*

Hull and Montgomery, in 1919, and Lois E. Brown, in 1921, selected certain of the character traits commonly listed by graphologists as associated with traits of handwriting, that could be objectively measured. Some of these character traits were bashfulness, ambition, pride, forcefulness, perseverance, and reserve. The subjects were first rated on each of these character traits by a number of intimate friends. Next, their handwriting was carefully analyzed. The results were entirely negative.

7 HULL, *op. cit.,* pp. 147–151.

Nearly all the correlations were less than 0.20. None was even as high as 0.50. The largest correlations were one of -0.45 and one of $+0.38$ but in these cases the probable error was so great as to make the results untrustworthy. The results of these experiments do not warrant our placing any confidence in the methods under consideration; rather, they cast serious doubt upon their validity.

Although not denying that handwriting does reveal certain characteristics, we are forced to say that the evidence presented does not substantiate the claims of its advocates. We cannot depend upon graphology to give us worth-while, accurate data regarding individuals.

E. Danger of Short-cut Methods

1. *Distortion of Facts.* The methods described in this chapter are fairly representative of the many systems of analysis founded on the theory of "signs" and based upon a more or less mystical interpretation of human life. They each have some basis in fact, but we are forced by the evidence to say that they all have so distorted this factual basis and so magnified it that their conclusions are no longer reliable.

2. *Appeal of Advertisements.* Reputable papers and magazines are full of cleverly worded advertisements of these so-called "experts," and there is a compelling appeal in their arguments. Human nature is too prone to seek the short-cut process, in America especially. We continually chase the rainbow; we never cease hoping to get something for nothing.

3. *Necessity for Individual Study.* Every careful teacher and guidance worker should be on his guard against these methods. Up to the present time, no reliable short-cut method has been discovered or devised to enable us to analyze the complexities of human character. We still are forced to the long and often tedious process of individual investigation. We should be profoundly thankful that this is true, for success in the field of guidance depends upon the degree to which we keep our eyes fixed upon the individual and his own peculiar needs.

IV. NECESSITY FOR PROVIDING GUIDANCE

1. *Need for Guidance from the Standpoint of the Individual.* The amazing and rapid increase in the complexity of industrial

and economic life, the changes in the conditions of living, and the phenomenal development of educational facilities beyond the elementary school have greatly increased the dependence of the individual upon outside help, and this dependence is steadily becoming greater. The young person is now confronted with a bewildering complexity of choice, not only of occupations and of jobs within an occupation, but also of future schools and kinds of specialized training for life work. Intelligent choice can result only where the young person has adequate facts and experiences and receives careful counseling at all stages of his progress. These society must provide. Delicate adjustments are necessary in the life of the youth of today that were not necessary half a century or more ago. The individual needs assistance as never before.

2. *Necessity from the Standpoint of Society.* Society also has a claim; its very safety and progress demand that each individual be in that place, occupational, civic, and social, where he can contribute to the welfare of others and contribute his best to this welfare. This means that he shall be in an occupation where he will succeed, at least to the extent of making his own living. It means that he shall be so trained that, to the extent that *it is* possible for him, he will make society better and contribute his bit to improving conditions. An improvement of conditions may come through inventions and discoveries; it may come by securing better government; it may be increased by production or perhaps by more economical consumption.

However it comes, it involves the elimination of maladjustment or, at least, a material reduction in the number of those who are seriously maladjusted. It means that, so far as possible, each person will find his way to a place in society where he can make efficient use of whatever powers and abilities he may have. The improvement of conditions necessitates conscious organized guidance.

V. SIGNIFICANCE FOR THE SCHOOL

It is clear, then, that all the conditions of modern life point unmistakably to the increasing necessity for organized guidance, especially for our young people. This help may be given by all parts of the social order, the home, the church, the state, and the school. Adequate guidance cannot be given unless all these

agencies unite in a cooperative effort to give the assistance needed. But upon the public school must fall the major responsibility for initiating and carrying on the work. It is the only agency that can provide such help in a form and to a degree that promise any adequate solution of the problem. Not only does it have the children most of the time and at the most impressionable age, but its very organization makes possible expert assistance of a kind that home or church cannot provide.

REFERENCES

1. ANDERSON, H. DEWEY, and PERCY E. DAVIDSON: "Occupational Trends in the United States," Stanford University Press, Stanford University, Calif., 1940. A very valuable reference on changing conditions in social, economic, and industrial life, with forecasts based upon significant trends.

2. BLACKFORD, KATHERINE M. H., and A. NEWCOMB: "The Job, the Man, and the Boss," Doubleday & Company, Inc., New York, 1919. This reference still has much value for anyone wishing to make a study of one of the outmoded methods of diagnosis and prognosis. The discussion has all the force of the apparent conviction of the authors that the theories held are correct.

3. ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E., editor: "A Basic Text for Guidance Workers," Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947. A combination of chapters from twenty contributors. Includes some material on the need for guidance.

4. GERMANE, CHARLES E., and EDITH G. GERMANE: "Personnel Work in High School," Part I, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1941. An interesting and helpful discussion, using case material, of the need for guidance and the character of personnel work in the school.

5. HULL, CLARK L.: "Aptitude Testing," World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1928. This book, although somewhat outmoded by recent investigations, is still a valuable source of material showing the futility of "ologies" and pseudo sciences.

6. MENDEL, A. D.: "Personality and Handwriting," Frederick Unger Publishing Co., New York, 1947. A good treatment of the topic.

7. PATERSON, DONALD G., and KATHERINE E. LUDGATE: Blond and Brunet Traits: A Quantitative Study, *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1:122–127, July, 1922. A basic study of traits that are often assumed to be characteristic of blonds or of brunets.

8. ROGERS, C. F.: "Astrology and Prediction, in the Light of History, Science and Religion," The Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., Toronto, 1948. An interesting description from the standpoint of a graphologist.

9. SHELDON, W. H., and S. S. STEVENS: "The Varieties of Temperament: A Psychology of Constitutional Differences," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. Rates people on a seven-point scale for three types of tissues, comparing these ratings with certain personality ratings.

10. Ross, Murray G.: "Religious Beliefs of Youth," Association Press, New York, 1950. An analysis of questionnaires answered anonymously by nearly 2,000 Protestants, Catholics, Jews, and others between the ages of eighteen and twenty-nine.

11. Super, Donald E.: "Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Sheds some light upon certain characteristics of individuals and their interrelationships.

12. Super, Donald E.: "The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. Chapter 2 will be found especially helpful.

CHAPTER II

TYPES OF PROBLEMS CONFRONTING INDIVIDUALS

1. *Situations That Call for Guidance.* The need for organized guidance is found in the presence of life situations of such a nature that individuals cannot meet them successfully without assistance. Whenever individuals can solve their own problems and make their own interpretations and adjustments, assistance is ~~not only unnecessary but~~ undesirable. In Chap. I, it was seen that modern social, economic, and industrial life has produced situations of such complexity that individuals are powerless to cope with them; the problems growing out of these situations are so difficult and so completely involved in the general social and economic life of the community and the nation that the individual himself cannot solve them alone. Since he cannot of himself make the necessary adjustments, organized assistance in some form must be provided. These situations constitute the field of guidance.

2. *Areas of Problems.* From the time of G. Stanley Hall to the present, many groupings of problems have been made. Some of these are, perhaps, not typical and stress the abnormal and the unusual, but even these are suggestive. During the past few years, very helpful lists have been collected by counselors and deans in schools and colleges. These are compiled from the questions asked by students of counselors, from the cases that arise in every school, and from lists of problems and situations contributed by young people themselves. Many of these have been brought together and organized in a very helpful way by Ruth Strang.[1] Every teacher and counselor will find it helpful to compile and prepare such lists as the problems present them-

[1] STRANG, RUTH, "The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work," pp. 49–99, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1932.

selves from day to day. Such lists will stimulate study and analysis and provide the basis for a planned program.

Two outlines of problems are presented, one a compilation from various sources, the other from the results of the Mooney Problem Check Lists. The first might be called areas of conditions rather than problems, because general conditions are relatively constant, while *situations* and *problems* are infinitely varied. Any condition in the home, such as unwholesome home life, may present one situation to a boy and an entirely different one to a girl because of varying factors that surround the two children. The problems growing out of the *situations* are still more varied. On the whole, the problems that develop out of each condition or situation involve choices, interpretations, and adjustments. The solution of the problem is always an individual affair.

3. *Bird's-eye View of Types of Problems.* It is hoped that this bird's-eye view may help to reveal to the beginner in guidance work the scope of guidance as a specialized school activity and the range of conditions in which help must be given. In the following list, typical conditions out of which problems arise are grouped under eight heads. These may be thought of as zones or locations or areas in which or in connection with which the conditions develop. This classification or grouping is unsatisfactory at best, for conditions, as well as problems, are many-sided and defy classification into separate compartments. The center of each problem lies in the individual and in his relation to himself and to others. This may and often does involve the home, the school, the church, the vocation, and many other areas. A problem of choosing a school or a vocation often has financial, personality, health, home, and social aspects. With this essential unity always in mind, it may be useful to attempt a rough classification of the conditions, grouping them into problem areas on the basis of some of the more important social relationships. The following areas have been selected: home, church, leisure time, social, school, and vocational; two other groups, health and personality, are added because of their peculiar importance in all situations and problems. Guidance workers may find some other classification more helpful, but these seem to cover the major fields fairly well.

PROBLEM AREAS AND CONDITIONS

Health and physical development.
  Conditions:
    a. Physical defects—sight, hearing, speech, deformity.
    b. Inability to excel in athletics.
    c. Lack of physical coordination.
    d. Lack of physical vigor.
    e. Malnutrition.
    f. Physical unattractiveness.
    g. Sickness.
    h. Undersize or oversize.
2. Home and family relationships.
  Conditions:
    a. Dominance of parents.
    b. Lack of control by parents.
    c. Lack of home fellowship.
    d. Broken homes—death, divorce, separation.
    e. Home duties—too few or too many.
    f. Jealousy or friction among children.
    g. Nonwholesome home conditions—physical, social, moral.
    h. Disapproving family.
    i. Lack of cooperation with school.
3. Leisure time.
  Conditions:
    a. Lack of interest in sports and games.
    b. Inability because of poor health or physical handicaps to engage in sports.
    c. Limited resources for enjoyment.
    d. Lack of interest in reading.
    e. Lack of skill in handicraft.
4. Personality.
  Conditions:
    a. Extreme sensitiveness.
    b. Shyness.
    c. Lack of aggressiveness.
    d. Strong aversions.
    e. Self-confidence or its lack.
    f. Excessive conceit, egotism.
    g. Carelessness.
    h. Inability to get along with people.
    i. Delusions.
    j. Lack of sportsmanship.
    k. Inferiority complex.

   l. Superiority complex.

   m. Lack of social-mindedness.

   n. Emotional instability.

 5. Religious life and church affiliations.

   Conditions:

    a. Religious doubts and conflicts.

    b. Extreme religious attitude of parents.

    c. Conversion.

    d. Excessive religious activity.

    e. Apparent conflict between science and religion.

 6. School.

   Conditions:

    a. Budgeting time.

    b. Ineffective study habits.

    c. Lack of application.

    d. Lack of independence.

    e. Too much help given by tea......

    f. Lack of interest in schoolwork.

    g. Feeling of boredom.

    h. Inability to see value in certain subjects.

    i. Fear of failure.

    j. Unwillingness to put forth effort.

    k. Dislike for teacher or for school.

    l. Too long assignments.

    m. Impatience with slower pupils.

    n. Poor study conditions in school or at home.

    o. Lack of adjustment of work to mental ability of pupil.

    p. Poor preparation.

    q. Too much attention to athletics or other student activities.

    r. Feeling of injustice.

    s. Poor orientation in general.

    t. Feeling that no one takes an interest in him.

    u. Poor choice of school or of subject.

    v. Choice of school or college.

    w. Planning work in preparation for college.

    x. Truancy.

 7. Social (including moral and civic).

   Conditions:

    a. Cheating, lying, stealing.

    b. Lack of moral standards.

    c. Manners.

    d. Antisocial tendencies.

    e. Racial handicaps and antipathies.
    f. Insufficient social life.
    g. Excessive social life.
    h. Unwise use of leisure.
    i. Smoking and drinking.
    j. Discourtesy.
    k. Rebellion against authority.
    l. Intolerance of others' beliefs and opinions.
    m. Choice of friends of opposite sex.
    n. "Petting" and "necking."
    o. Flirting.
    p. Disappointment in love.
    q. Being in love.
    r. Unreasonable restriction on friendship with opposite sex.
    s. Sex perversions.
    t. Double standards of morality.
    u. Low ideals of civic responsibility.
    v. Unwillingness to assume citizenship duties.
    w. Inability to choose leaders wisely.
    x. Unwillingness to follow chosen leaders.
    y. Unwillingness to accept responsibility as a leader.

8. Vocational.
   Conditions:
    a. Insistence by parents on a certain vocation.
    b. Inability to choose among several vocations.
    c. Unwise choice of vocation.
    d. Determining fitness for a given vocation.
    e. Choosing the best preparation for the vocation.
    f. Lack of time or money to secure the preparation necessary for the vocation chosen.
    g. Lack of opportunities in the vocation chosen.
    h. Difficulty in finding a job.
    i. Difficulty in adjustment to the conditions of the job.

This list of problem areas and conditions is very incomplete. Any teacher or counselor can easily, from his experience, multiply the items many times. It does, however, cover fairly well the main or typical conditions out of which problems arise. It will also be seen that there is much overlapping. That is, of course, due to the fact that conditions and situations are not simple; the location within a given area depends entirely upon the particular circumstances of the individual and the emphasis

due to local conditions. This is especially clear in the case of problems of minority groups. Although the areas of problems are relatively the same, the discriminations faced by these groups make the problem so intense that it really becomes a new problem.

4. *The Mooney Problem Check Lists.* Another helpful source for the problems of young people is provided in the Problem Check Lists, developed by Mooney.[2] Five forms have been developed: (1) Junior High School, (2) Senior High School, (3) College, (4) Nurses, and (5) Rural Youth. These check lists consist of phrases intended to make it easy for individuals to check the problems that trouble them. One check is for all the problems that trouble them or that they are conscious of at the moment; another is for the problems that are especially troublesome. As will be seen from Table XVI, the areas of problems in the five forms are quite similar but not entirely identical, except in the college and senior-high-school forms. The junior-high-school form consists of 210 items, 30 in each of 7 areas. In the college and senior-high-school forms there are 11 areas each consisting of 30 problems, making a total of 330 problems. In the form for rural youth, ages sixteen to thirty, there are 300 items, 30 in each of 10 areas. The form for schools of nurses is somewhat longer, containing 364 items, 28 in each of 13 areas. These check lists, filled out by hundreds of individuals, furnish very interesting and helpful data for counselors. Table XVI gives the areas for each of the forms, the average or mean number of problems marked by individuals, and the rank order of problems marked by individuals.

This table shows that in the area of health and physical development the average number of problems marked by the different groups was as follows: junior high school, 3.1; senior high school, 2.3; college, 1.85; nurses, 3.4. The rank order in percentage of problems marked for the same groups was: 5, 7.5, 7, and 4. Several points stand out conspicuously in the results. The area in which the largest percentage of problems was marked (except the nurses) was Adjustment to School; that in which the smallest percentage was marked was Morals and Religion,

TABLE XVI. AVERAGE (MEAN) AND RANK ORDER OF PROBLEMS MARKED IN EACH AREA, MOONEY CHECK LIST

Areas	Junior high school 191		Senior high school 553		College 280		Nurses 321		Av. rank
	Av. No.	Rank	Av. No.	Rank	Av. No.	Rank	Av. No.	Rank	
1. Health and physical development............	3.1	5	2.3	7.5	1.85	7	3.4	4	6
2. Finances and living conditions, employment.....	...	..	2.3	7.5	1.92	6	3.0	6	7
3. Social and recreational activities...............	...	..	2.5	6.0	2.17	4.5	4.6	1	4
4. Social—psychological relations................	3.1	5	2.7	5.0	1.45	8	2.6	9	5
5. Personal—psychological relations................	3.1	5	3.5	2.0	2.71	3	3.7	2	2
6. Boy-girl—courtship, sex, marriage..............	3.5	3	2.0	9	1.35	9.5	1.8	11	9
7. Home and family......	1.8	7	1.4	11	1.3	9.5	1.1	13	10
8. Morals and religion......	...	..	1.5	10	0.93	11	1.2	12	11
9. Adjustment to school....	4.0	1	4.1	1	3.95	1	3.5	3	1
10. The future—vocational, educational.............	...	..	3.0	4	2.17	4.5	2.9	7	5
11. Curriculum and teaching procedures.............	...	..	3.1	3	2.81	3	3.2	5	3
12. Miscellaneous...........	3.7	2							
13. Adjustment to human relations as nurses......	...	..	...	....	....	....	2.0	10	
14. Adjustments to administration of nursing care...	...	..	...	....	....	....	2.7	8	

with Home and Family a close second. Another interesting fact is that the area Boy-Girl—Courtship, Sex, Marriage was well toward the bottom (except in the junior-high-school area). Further study of the results of these check lists as given in the manuals for the different groups would be enlightening and well worth while. Of special significance are the data regarding the specific problems marked by individuals of the various groups.

5. *Sources of Referrals in Philadelphia Schools.* Another source that throws light upon the areas of problems of young people is the list of reasons for referral to counselors and counseling teachers in the Philadelphia public schools as reported by

the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling.[3] Figure 12 shows in percentages the different areas of reasons for major services and for minor services. Major services are those re-

Secondary Schools
Major Cases

39.9 Educational or Vocational Guidance
Recreation 1.7
Home or Neighborhood 6.9
6.7 Health
Behavior or Personality 18.9
Attendance 25.9

Elementary Schools
Major Cases

Recreation
Home or Neighborhood 9.1
9.6 Health
24.9 Educational or Vocational Guidance
Behavior or Personality 35.7
Attendance 17.2

Secondary Schools
Minor Cases

Recreation 2.9
Home or Neighborhood 4.0
5.8 Health
32.3 Educational or Vocational Guidance
Behavior or Personality 10.8
Attendance 44.1

Elementary Schools
Minor Cases

15.2 Recreation
Home or Neighborhood 8.8
16.7 Health
19.0 Educational or Vocational Guidance
Behavior or Personality 19.2
Attendance 21.1

FIG. 12. Comparative percentages of reasons for referral to counselors and counseling teachers, Philadelphia public schools, for the year ending June 30, 1949.

quiring a substantial amount of work and sustained contact; minor services are those requiring relatively slight counseling services.

These show that more than half the reasons for referral for both elementary and secondary schools were in the areas of educational and vocational guidance, attendance, and behavior

or personality; in the secondary schools these reasons constituted 85 per cent or more of the cases. In secondary schools the predominant areas were educational and vocational guidance and attendance; in the elementary schools they were about equally divided among educational and vocational guidance, attendance, and behavior and personality, with health close behind. These do not, of course, show basic problems or even causes; many merely indicate lack of adjustment to school regulations and conditions. The real causes and problems lie deeper. The list is, however, very significant because it indicates the chief areas out of which problems arise.

6. *Problems of Minority Groups.* Another area of problems or problem sources is that related to minority groups. In spite of our democratic ideal of the fundamental equality of all people, we find restrictions of many kinds imposed by law or or custom upon individuals of different races, of different religions, and, at times, even of different nationalities. These restrictions deny or make difficult access to types of occupations, to the polls, to social groups, and to places of residence. Such restrictions have been shown to have an evil influence upon personality and temperament. They often are cumulative in their influence, one restriction developing another and still another. Any feeling, custom, or law which, on the basis of sex, race, color, religion, ancestry, or anything other than ability, restricts an individual in activities that are essential to his welfare and development, is undemocratic and vicious and causes problems that are very difficult to solve. In a democracy each person must be treated as an individual, not as a member of any race, sect, or group, whatever it may be.

7. *The Variety and Complexity of Problems.* The areas of problems in the lists given cover the entire range of the life of the individual, from early childhood to old-age. The particular problems of the child, the youth, the adult, and the aged differ both in kind and in intensity. The special problems of the child of five or six who is entering school for the first time center largely around changes in the pattern of his life. He emerges from a life that is relatively sheltered and free, to one in which he must conform to the relatively fixed routine of the school; from a life where learning is through home and play experiences and largely incidental, to one where the entire daily routine

is centered upon the learning of skills—that are quite new. He must continually face situations that call for the development of new patterns of behavior. In the home he is accustomed to contact with a small group including adults and, usually, children of varying ages; in school he is one of a large group of children of relatively the same age and social development, and in contact with only one adult. These differences in environment are intensified by the atmosphere of the conservative type of school. They often result in antagonisms, tensions, and emotional disturbances that seriously affect both his learning and his adjustments. It is now recognized that these early maladjustments have a profound influence upon later life.

The problems in the Mooney Problem Check Lists are largely those of youth and early adulthood. The problems of adults are more largely concerned with home and family relations, economic security, and social-civic life. The special problems of the aging and the aged have received increasing attention during the past few years. They involve not only economic security, but also adjustments to a condition of enforced retirement from a long-established pattern of life.

Above and around all these problems is the pervasive atmosphere of fear of what the future may bring; of instability and insecurity; of change due to the aftermath of the war and to unstable conditions in the world at large and also in the lives of everyone. *This profoundly affects all phases of life; even the small child in the home cannot escape its impact.* A careful study of the many lists of problems available will show that the situations and problems cover practically every phase of the lives of individuals, from those that affect personal relations with other people in a social and economic way to those that are primarily concerned with personal well-being and development; they are as varied as human nature. //

Every study that has been made has revealed the great variation in number of problems. It should also be remembered that the problems marked by an individual in the different check lists and blanks are only those of which he was conscious at the time when the list was filled out or the problems checked. Some very important problems may not have been recognized by the individual himself at that particular time. Moreover, the problems checked represent only those he was willing to reveal;

he may have had some deep personal problem which he was afraid or ashamed to reveal. Nor can we always tell what the real problem is by a mere statement of the situation out of which it arises or by a general description of the problem itself. For example, the problem arising from the inability to choose an occupation from the many that are available may merely be one of lack of preliminary experience with some of the occupations; it may lie in an attitude of laziness, unwillingness to choose any occupation, or a desire to drift. The real problem may be found in the relation between, say, the individual and his father, or a repressed but impelling desire to leave home or to get married. Lack of success on the job may be due to a lack of skill, inability to get along with the boss or with fellow workers, a feeling of insecurity, poor health, unsatisfactory home conditions, a lack of ambition, or a combination of many factors.

Some problems are, or seem to be, very simple; others are very complex. The only safe thing to assume is that most problems are not simple, but complex, and have many facets. Each situation that confronts an individual has many elements and these elements have very important interrelationships that must be considered. This fact conditions or should condition the entire approach to the assistance given and indicates the danger of assuming in advance what the real problem is. The wise counselor always begins with the problem as seen by the counselee but he need not and should not take for granted that this is the real problem or that other elements in the total situation are not important.

REFERENCES

1. ALLEN, RICHARD D.: "Case Conference Problems in Group Guidance," Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1933. A rich source of problems taken from the lives of high-school pupils.

2. ALLEN, RICHARD D., FRANCIS J. STEWART, and LESTER J. SCHLOERB: "Common Problems in Group Guidance," Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1934. Many typical problems are described, and methods of group discussion are discussed.

3. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, STAFF OF THE DIVISION ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT and TEACHER PERSONNEL: "Helping Teachers Understand Children," The Council, Washington, D.C., 1945. Includes extensive case studies of children.

4. BELL, HOWARD M.: "Youth Tell Their Story," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1947. A comprehensive study of young people sixteen to twenty-four years old, in Maryland.

5. Brewer, John M., and others: "Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance," Ginn & Company, Boston, 1926. Cases are selected from the rich experience of the author to illustrate fundamental principles of guidance.

6. Dangler, Edward: Young Children Need Guidance Too, *Understanding the Child*, 18:52, 53, April, 1949. Types of children who need guidance are listed.

7. Elias, L. J.: "High School Youth Look at Their Problems," The State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash., 1949. A state-wide survey of the problems of 4,500 seniors from 154 Washington high schools.

8. Faegre, Marion L.: "Your Child from 6 to 12," Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C., 1949.

9. Fedder, Ruth: "A Girl Grows Up," rev. ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948. Describes many of the problems of girls.

10. Germane, Charles E., and Edith G. Germane: "Personnel Work in High School," Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1941. Case studies throughout the text serve to illustrate the types of problem confronting youth.

11. Lefever, D. Welty, Archie M. Turrell, and Henry I. Weitzel: "Principles and Techniques of Guidance," pp. 293–299, 338–377, 405–438, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1941. Lists of problems and areas of problems taken from actual experience are given.

12. Lloyd-Jones, Esther McD.: "Social Competence and College Students, American Council on Education," Washington, D.C., 1946. Gives many case studies and a summary report on a maladjusted student.

13. Mooney, Ross L.: Exploratory Research on Students' Problems, *Journal of Educational Research*, 37:218–234, 1943. Briefly describes the Check List, outlines its major uses, and lists fourteen basic research problems which are opened for investigation.

14. Mueller, Kate H., and others: "Counseling for Mental Health, American Council on Education," Washington, D.C., 1947. Gives brief case histories of eight students who might be found on any college campus.

15. Strang, Ruth: "The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1932. An excellent treatment of the types of problem confronting youth.

16. Williams, Claire V.: Special Considerations in Counseling, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 9, May, 1949. Discusses the special problems of minority groups.

17. Williamson, E. G., and M. E. Hahn: "Introduction to High School Counseling," Chap. II, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940. A brief treatment of types of problems of youth.

MEANING AND PURPOSE OF GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

I. MEANING OF GUIDANCE

1. *Confusion in Use of the Term.* In the previous chapter the term "guidance" was used in its general meaning. For ordinary purposes this might be sufficient but, when we are attempting to make a more detailed study of ways in which guidance is actually given and administered, it may be useful to define the term more clearly or at least to state the point of view upon which the discussion is based. This is especially necessary because the term is used in so many different ways that the true significance of the work of guidance in our schools is often overlooked and sometimes totally misunderstood. This misunderstanding is due in large part to two causes: (1) The beginning of the guidance movement in this country is found in the work of Frank Parsons, who stressed the vocational aspect. Because of this many people still think of guidance as restricted to "getting jobs for young people," to "distributing young people to jobs according to their ability," or to some other purely vocational aspect of the problem. This point of view is accepted by many because of the feeling that a successful attack upon a problem can be made only by analyzing it into its simple elements. Some also feel that every important crisis in the lives of individuals has its origin in or is associated directly with vocational choice, vocational placement, or vocational adjustment. (2) The second cause of confusion has its origin in a tendency that is directly opposed to the first. Instead of restricting the use of the term to a narrow vocational concept, the tendency is to identify guidance with all education and so to lose much of its special significance as an essential element in dealing with individuals. These differences in definition have progressed so far as to cause confusion and to interfere seriously with the real progress of the

movement. Instead of concentrating our energies on the objectives agreed upon by all, which we might well do, we too often are divided into somewhat antagonistic camps and fail to make our influence felt in working for the common cause. Some believe that it would be well to discard the term entirely. The chief difficulty with this would seem to be the discovery of a substitute that would be satisfactory and acceptable to all. In the discussion that follows the attempt will be made to show the fundamental meaning of guidance and to make clear the point of view taken by the author.

2. *Fundamental Meaning of Guidance.* What, then, is guidance? Something of its real meaning may be brought out by a consideration of the common use of the word and by comparing it with others used as synonyms or having only slightly different shades of meaning. The essential differences will be more clearly seen if we use the form of the verb instead of that of the noun. *To guide* means to indicate, to point out, to show the way. It means more than *to assist.* A man falls on the street; we assist him to get up but we do not guide him unless we help him to go in a certain direction. The synonyms of *to guide* are *to lead, to conduct, to regulate, to direct, to steer.* These synonyms have each a slightly different shade of meaning. *To steer* is a word used originally to indicate the process of directing a ship by means of a rudder. *To direct* means to give direction to, to point out. In general, *to guide* implies help that is more of a personal nature than either *to steer* or *to direct.* We speak of steering a ship, a boat, an automobile, or a bicycle. In all of these the thing steered has no volition in itself; it has no desire, no mind of its own. When we speak of steering a person through a crowd, we have in mind a more or less mechanical process in which the person steered has no part; he is like an inanimate object. We do sometimes speak of guiding a canoe or even a car, but here we invest the canoe or the car with life, often with a perversity, that seems very real. We do not speak of steering a horse, even though we use reins. The reins are used not to steer the course of the horse mechanically but as a means of communicating to the horse what we want him to do. It is merely enlisting his will to do what we want done. The difference between directing and guiding is also clear. We may direct a person to the railway station by telling him how to go, but we

guide him only when we go with him. *To direct* also sometimes has a suggestion of compulsion that is lacking in *to guide*. The help given by a really good guide in a personally conducted expedition is guidance. On such an expedition he is supposed to have traveled that way before or to know more about the important features of the way than the person guided. His function is to propose places to visit, to indicate desirable ways of reaching the places selected, to suggest things to do and to see, and to give such help from time to time as will make the expedition more pleasant and profitable. To accomplish this, the best guides never obtrude themselves; they give as much freedom as possible to the traveler and keep in the background when not wanted. Guidance involves personal help given by someone; it is designed to assist a person in deciding where he wants to go, what he wants to do, or how he can best accomplish his purpose; it assists him in solving problems that arise in his life. It does not solve problems for the individual but helps him to solve them. The focus of guidance is the individual, not the problem; its purpose is to promote the growth of the individual in self-direction. This help may be given to individuals in a group or directly to the individual alone, but it is always designed to assist the individual.

II. GUIDANCE AND EDUCATION

1. *Meanings of Education.* How, then, is guidance related to education? One cause of the differences in statements regarding the relation of guidance to education is the differences in the meaning of education as conceived by the various writers. (1) Education is often considered to be a process that goes on in each individual, consisting of changes that take place within him. (2) Education is sometimes identified with instruction or teaching. It is the assistance given by the teacher or some other person to the individual in making these changes. (3) Education in its broad aspect may be stated to be the conscious effort of society to guide and direct the growth of its immature members so that they will be able to live lives that will be individually satisfying and socially efficient. In the following discussion each of these concepts will be analyzed with relation to guidance.

2. *Education a Process of Change and the Relation of This Concept to Guidance.* From one point of view education is

essentially a process; it is something that takes place *in individuals*; it is the process by which changes are made in individuals [1] or, better, by which the individual makes changes in himself. Human beings at birth are the most helpless of all animals. They are absolutely dependent upon others for their very existence. For long years they must be fed, cared for, and protected in order to preserve life and to ensure normal growth and development. Less than any other animal is man adjusted by nature to his physical environment. He must learn to walk, to eat, to make those adjustments that are necessary to cope with physical nature. Habits must be formed, skills developed, facts learned, before it is safe for him to go alone. That is, he is not adjusted by nature to his physical environment, and changes must be made in him before he can be adjusted. If this is true of his physical environment, how much more is it true of his social environment. Very few adjustments to the social environment are due to nature. Man's physical nature and equipment have remained practically stationary for centuries. His stature, his features, his brain are now essentially the same as they were when the great pyramids were built. But although man's physical and mental equipment has not changed, the social structure of society has become tremendously complex. Social demands have so far outstripped man's physical nature that the gap between the social plane of the infant and that of the adult is very wide—impossible to cross, in fact, without assistance. As civilization advances, the gap is ever widening. The method by which the infant is enabled to bridge this gap, to raise himself from the social plane of childhood to that of manhood, is education. This is accomplished by certain changes that are made chiefly in the nervous system of the individual by which he reacts in appropriate and desirable ways to situations that confront him. The number of these changes and their quality are such as to require long years and special techniques for their development. Education is, then, the process by which the individual makes these necessary changes.

From this point of view education is essentially and wholly an *individual* process. There can be no such thing as *mass edu-*

cation. The changes that we call education take place only in individuals. We may, and often do, have twenty-five to forty pupils in a class, but education of the class is not accomplished in some magical way by something done to the class as a whole or done by them as a whole; it is accomplished only when the desirable changes are made in each individual of the class. The results that we call education can be measured only in terms of the changes made in *each individual*.

These changes that we call education are often very complex. They consist, in part, of series of conditioned reflexes of such a nature that when a situation occurs the appropriate response or series of responses occur. There are also many other changes of a more complex and general nature such as understandings, attitudes, interests, and ideals that also condition responses. These are not formed in a moment but many times require hours of practice and constant repetition before they function satisfactorily. The only way by which they can be developed is by actually having the individual make the appropriate responses to the stimulus or the situation.

It is thus seen that education of an individual results only from the responses that he *himself makes to stimuli*. The important thing is the kind and the nature of the *response* made. If this is true, it can be said that all education is self-education. No one can educate anyone else. Each one educates himself by the responses that he makes, by what he himself does. Without response, without self-activity there can be no education. Education is thus something that takes place *in each individual* as a result of something that *he does*. This is what Davidson [2] means when he says, "Education, in the widest sense, may be defined as the *upbuilding of a world* in feeling or in consciousness." Each individual builds for himself the world in which he lives. His images, his memories, his thoughts and feelings, his ideals are formed from his own experience—what he himself does. They are his own and no one can share them; nor can anyone take them away against his will. When we view education from this standpoint there can be no guidance, for guidance implies assistance given by someone to the one who is educating

[2] Davidson, Thomas, "History of Education," p. 5, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1900.

himself. Insofar as the individual is really self-educated there is no guidance.

3. *Instruction and Guidance.* If we think of education as resulting only from what the individual himself does, if he is the active agent, what is the relation of instruction to this process?

Returning to the simile of the guide, we can say that the teacher knows the ends to be accomplished; in this, he is merely the agent of society; he also knows the best ways by which these ends may be attained, that is, by which effective learning may be done by the pupil. The role of the teacher in the older conception of teaching was comparatively clear and simple.

1. He must have definitely in mind what is to be learned—it is relatively unimportant for the pupil to know this.

2. He must have, in the form of textbooks, materials, outlines, problems, etc., stimuli that are calculated to result in the desired responses by the pupil.

3. He must see that the pupil makes the responses desired. If he makes responses other than the desirable ones, he must be compelled by punishment or other means to make the ones that have been selected.

4. He must test for the product, the skill, habit, attitude, etc., and see that the end has actually been attained.

This makes the teacher the active and to a large extent the determining factor in learning. Much teaching is still of this kind; it is directed mainly at forcing the child to learn. The learner is still too frequently considered as inert or even stubborn and not actively interested in or concerned with learning. But even this more or less mechanical teacher-controlled process is not so simple as it may seem. The child is, even here, a very important and an extremely variable factor. Situations in the classroom are not simple. They are composed of many different stimuli; some of these are the selected stimuli provided by the teacher, but others are supplied by many factors in the immediate environment of the pupil, including the pupil himself. The child can and does often choose among the stimuli that make up the situation the one to which he responds. He may single out the teacher's prominent nose, her gaudy dress, the wasp in the window, or any one of a dozen things to which he gives attention and to which he responds rather than the words of the teacher or the material in his textbook. Efficient education re-

quires not only that a person respond to a stimulus but that he select the desirable groups of stimuli to which he responds, that is, desirable from the standpoint of education. Again, even though he single out the desired stimulus, he may respond in many different ways to it. Suppose the topic he is studying is the products of South America. He reads the words in his book describing them; these are the stimuli. What responses does he make? He may go off into a daydream of voyaging on the high seas, of pirates and Spanish galleons, or he may plan a hiking trip when he will take along some of the products mentioned. There are many ways of responding that may seem much more desirable to him than the responses that the teacher wishes and that are demanded if he is to learn what the products of South America are. To the teacher trained in the older method these variable conditions are extremely annoying; they must be eliminated if possible. These methods constitute what some regard as guidance, since, in a sense, these rewards and punishments direct the learner, but they are entirely teacher directed and teacher controlled; the individual himself has no part in the planning; he is passive; there is no choice. It is, therefore, not guidance as we here consider the process.

Happily, this method is rapidly giving way to one that is not only fundamentally more sound but more effective as well. In the new method, teaching is thought of as helping the child to learn. The child is the active agent in the process. The teacher determines largely the ends to be achieved as before, although even here there may be pupil cooperation, but he also assists the pupil to understand the ends and to accept them as his own. Assistance, so directed, is guidance. If the pupil is able to select his aims, if, after understanding and accepting the ends, the pupil is able by himself to see what he must do to accomplish the ends, the teacher steps aside; there is no teaching and no guidance is necessary. Whenever in the learning process the teacher *assists the learner to choose,* guidance is present.

There is also another way in which guidance enters into the process of education. The teacher, as an agent of society, sets up ends to be accomplished by the pupil, but the method by which different pupils reach the ends may vary. Reaching the ends is important; the method by which the end is reached is relatively unimportant, except that it should be the method best

suited to the individual pupil. Choices in method are often, if not always, possible. The efficient teacher is continually trying to help the pupil find the method that is best suited to him. When the teacher selects the method there is teaching but no guidance; when he assists the learner to choose a method, guidance is present.

Whenever, in the process of accomplishing the ends (that is, in learning), the pupil needs help, it is the teacher's function to give it. This help usually consists of stimuli in the form of outlines, references, suggestions, leading questions, expressions of approval and disapproval, motives, and anything else that may help the pupil to learn. This is teaching or instruction; it may or may not be guidance. Teaching conceived as assisting the learner to choose ends or methods is guidance.

4. *Education as a Function of Society and the Relation of This Concept to Guidance.* In the broader concept of education, guidance and education are closely related. This concept has already been stated as "the conscious effort of society to guide and direct the growth of its immature members so that they will be able to live lives that will be individually satisfying and socially effective."

This statement does not satisfy the ultraprogressive educator who reacts strongly against any form of control of individual development by society and who contends that the only object of education is the development of the individual. This development is to be determined not by what society wants but by some inward force or law or principle which, if followed, will result in the maximum or optimum development of each individual. Nor will it satisfy the ultraconservative who emphasizes the need for social efficiency as opposed to mere individual development. Each of these elements must, of course, be present but they should be complementary, not antagonistic. This concept of education might seem to make guidance and education synonymous both when we stress the development of the individual for himself as an end and when we emphasize the needs of society, for education is thought of as the conscious effort of society to assist the individual.

It should be noted, however, that the important words in this sentence are not "the conscious effort of society," but "assist the individual," and the place of society in the education of indi-

viduals may not be "assistance," in the real sense. When society merely determines what shall be taught and does nothing to assist the individual, when he is thought of as passive, guidance is not present except in a very indirect and remote way. In a sense, the entire conscious effort of society to see that the individual reaches certain goals set up by society is assistance. The physical and social environment, if selected and organized by society for the purpose of making sure that the child will develop in a certain way, the curriculum, the textbooks, library, and laboratories, the organized life of the school, all are instrumental in making sure that the pupil develops in certain ways. The habits and skills developed, the interests and attitudes formed, all are powerful factors. This is, at best, a very mechanical and deterministic kind of assistance. It really is not assistance at all, for assistance implies more or less independent action on the part of the individual, that is, the enlistment of the individual in the enterprise. In the same sense we could say that we assist the canoe to move by paddling, we assist the plant to grow by watering it, we assist the post to stand upright by digging a hole and placing the post in it, we assist the boy to be clean by washing his face. This is a misuse of the term "assistance." This mechanical assistance, even though it helps to determine the development of the individual and may materially affect his choices, can hardly be guidance, for it leaves out this all-important part that the individual himself plays in the process.

This broader concept of education includes guidance only when the modern, progressive point of view of the place and function of the individual is accepted. But even this concept does not completely identify guidance with education for it omits the self-directed efforts of the individual himself in his own education; this is education but not guidance. In the second place not every form of assistance is guidance. It is only when the assistance given is directed toward helping the individual to make choices that guidance is present. There are certain situations in education where the element of choice by the individual is prominent and there are other situations in which it is not.

5. *Guidance and Purposive Living.* Viewing the life of the individual as a whole, guidance may be said to have as its purpose helping the individual to discover his needs, to assess his

potentialities, gradually to develop life goals that are individually satisfying and socially desirable, to formulate plans of action in the service of these goals, and to proceed to their realization.[3]

This practically identifies the purpose of guidance with that of education. It places major emphasis upon the development of the whole individual who is now functioning and will in the future function in a social environment. It is a useful concept because it stresses the unity of one's life and reveals the impossibility of separating one aspect of life from another. It is based upon the belief that each of us builds up, step by step, a life purpose or goal which serves or should serve as a center of integration for our desires and ambitions and as a guide for our plans. One of the most vital elements in our efforts to educate individuals is the assistance we give in connection with choosing and developing these life purposes or goals.

6. *Distinction between Guidance and Education.* There are still a few people who regard education and guidance as separate and distinct, but their number is rapidly diminishing. Such a separation is impossible; it violates the essential nature of education and of guidance. The differences of opinion now are chiefly between those who would make guidance and education synonymous terms and those who regard guidance as an aspect and an essential element in education. The reason for this difference is found partly in the difference in meanings attached to the term "education" and partly in the failure to distinguish between the parts played by the teacher and by the learner in the process of education.

The position taken by the author is that guidance is found in that area of educational endeavor which involves assistance given by agencies or persons to the individual in making choices, in helping him to choose a line of action, a method of procedure, a goal. It is not choosing for him or directing his choice; it is helping him to make the choice.

Education deals with the entire scope of human development. From one standpoint it is the conscious effort of society to change

---

[3] A more complete discussion of this concept will be found in ARTHUR J. JONES and HAROLD C. HAND, "Guidance and Purposive Living," Chap. I in "Guidance in Educational Institutions," Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938.

and develop the individual so that he may conform to society, take his place in it, improve it, and in doing this secure his own optimum development. From another standpoint it is the conscious effort of the individual to adjust himself to his physical and social environment, to improve it, and so to secure his own highest development. Here are two forces, the individual and society, working for the same ends. When society merely determines what shall be learned and how it shall be learned and does nothing to secure the cooperation of the individual in the choice of things to be learned or methods to be used, guidance is not present, for there is no choice by the individual. Society in general and the teacher in particular may consciously seek to influence or direct the growth of the individual, and this may often be necessary. Wise choices in later life are dependent to a large extent upon habits and attitudes formed in early life and these may be the result of compulsion. This might be considered good education, but it is not guidance. It is only when the cooperation of the individual is secured, when assistance is given to him in choosing his goals or his methods, that guidance is present. The individual may consciously attempt to set up a goal or to reach the goal set up and do it without help. When he does this, guidance is not present. Education may take place, and often does, through the effort and initiation of the individual alone. This is education but not guidance.

Many authors fail to distinguish between those things which *make it possible to guide wisely* and the process of guidance itself. Testing and test results, records, fundamental habits, and skills are all necessary for wise choice, but it is only when the teacher, counselor, or other person uses these in a *conscious* effort to *help* the individual in *his choices* that guidance is present. All guidance is education but some aspects of education are not guidance; their objectives are the same—the development of the individual—but the methods used in education are by no means the same as those used in guidance.

III. GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

The term "personnel work" is appearing with increasing frequency in discussions regarding services that are more or less closely related to guidance. This has caused considerable confusion and has resulted in some unfortunate misunderstandings

and antagonisms. It may be well at this point to discuss the relationship of the two concepts to one another and the types of service rendered by each.

1. *Areas of Guidance and Personnel Work.* "Guidance" is used to indicate a type of personalized service in the elementary and the secondary school; "personnel work" is used for services in business, industry, and many forms of government work. It is also used in higher education as "student personnel work." In the past few years the term "pupil personnel work" has been used with increasing frequency for similar services in the secondary and in the elementary school.

2. *Meaning and Purpose of Personnel Work.* Personnel work, as the name implies, deals with individual human beings. It is centered on the individual; its purpose is to give service to individuals. Within this general purpose there are important variations in emphasis. Undoubtedly the over-all purpose that is now most generally accepted is "to assist the individual in his development as a human being." Another purpose is "to assist the individual to attain increasing effectiveness in the enterprise in which he is engaged." In industry this means "increased effectiveness as a worker." In the armed forces it is "increased effectiveness as a member of the armed force." In the school it is "increased effectiveness as a learner and as a member of the school." In all types of personnel work this purpose is, and will continue to be, of great importance; in some business and industrial organizations it still seems to be the exclusive purpose. Ideally it need not be opposed to the over-all purpose; it is, in fact, essential to its attainment but in many situations there is still lack of harmony between the specific purpose and the over-all purpose.

3. *Comparison between Types of Personnel Work.* Although the basic purposes of all types of personnel work are essentially the same, there are important differences in emphasis. These differences are due primarily to (1) differences in the product for which the organization—business, industry, the school, etc.—is set up; (2) differences in the materials used, and (3) differences in the process by which the product is developed. These differences may be seen, roughly, by contrasting personnel work in industry with that in education. Figure 13 may help to make

this clear. The hat factory is taken as an example of industry and the high school as an example of education.[4]

The objective of the hat factory is to make hats; the raw materials are wool, silk, cotton, straw, leather, etc. The general

THE HAT FACTORY   THE HIGH SCHOOL

General Administration
Directors and Officers

General Administration
School Board, Superintendent

Heads of Departments
Foremen

The Principal
Heads of Departments

The Workers

PERSONNEL
WORK

The Teachers

The Raw Materials
Wool, Silk, Leather, etc.

The Materials
The Pupils

The Product
The Hat

The Product
Developed, Integrated Person

Fig. 13. Personnel work in industry and in education.

administration determines policies and purposes; the heads of departments, foremen, etc., deal directly with the workers; the workers take the raw materials and transform them into the finished product. The general purpose of the factory is to do this as quickly and as effectively as possible. The personnel work is a service set up by the management primarily to promote the

4 This diagram is, of course, an oversimplification of the situation. As will be seen later, personnel work is not an outside or auxiliary service, as seems to be indicated, but an integral part of the factory and of the school; nor is its service confined entirely to those designated as personnel workers.

effectiveness of the worker in the manufacture of the hat. This is done in many ways that differ greatly in different hat factories. Some of these are: helping in the selection of workers and in the proper placing of them in the type of work in which each can be most effective, helping in adjustment to the job, to the foreman, and to fellow workers—"fitting the worker to the job." It may concern itself with the physical conditions in the plant that interfere with effective production. The personnel service may help in securing for the worker suitable accommodations, insurance, needed financial aid, etc. It may even give assistance in regard to family maladjustments; it may include anything that might help the worker to become well adjusted and satisfied, for these have been demonstrated to help increase production. As shown in Fig. 13, personnel work deals primarily with the worker; it takes no part in the actual process of production. It has a direct relationship and responsibility to the general administration and to the heads of departments. Its work must be in harmony with them and it must interpret the desires of the management to the workers, as well as interpreting the workers and their attitudes to management. Frequently important changes in working conditions result from such activities. In many factories and business concerns the personnel service is an important agent in welding management and workers into a well-coordinated organization for effective production. This may well be its chief function. However, within the limits of this function, an increasing number of personnel workers are definitely concerned with the individual worker himself, and with his development. Management itself is beginning to realize that it must concern itself more with the welfare of the worker even apart from efficiency of production, that in some way the life of the worker in the factory must contribute to his own welfare and his own development.

It is important to keep in mind that the purpose and objective of the personnel work in the hat factory are also the purpose of the entire organization. The general administration is vitally concerned with the efficiency of the workers; the same is true, in a more direct way, of the heads of departments and the foremen. The personnel work is a service set up primarily to assist in the attainment of the over-all purpose—the manufacture of the

hat—but in doing this it does not (or need not) lose sight of its obligation to the worker as an individual.

When we consider personnel work in education we find many important differences. The most important differences are in the materials and in the product. In the hat factory the materials are the wool, silk, etc.; in the high school the materials are the pupils. The product in the factory is the hat; in the high school it is a well-developed, integrated human being. Personnel work in the school deals both with the materials (the pupils) and with the product (the pupils). It has direct relationship and responsibility to the general administration and to the principal; it must work directly with teachers, parents, and the community as well.

One purpose of pupil personnel work is to assist the pupil to obtain the maximum value from his educational environment, the school. This is almost identical with the purpose of industrial personnel work in securing those working conditions that will result in maximum production. The chief difference is in the type of product. In the factory the product is the finished article; in the school it is the developing individual pupil. In the school the entire emphasis is upon the development of the pupil; in industry it is more upon the increased effectiveness of the worker himself. Another general similarity between the functions of these two types of personnel worker is that in each the personnel worker acts as an agency to weld management and workers into an organization that will be most effective in securing the desired result. In the factory this is maximum production; in the school it is the optimum development of the pupil. This function is of special importance in the school because of the tendency on the part of administrators and teachers to forget or neglect the individual pupil and his needs. They too often become so absorbed in maintaining a smoothly running organization, or in teaching something *to* pupils that they lose sight of the purpose for which the school is established.

4. *The Fundamental Similarities in Purpose.* To an ever-increasing degree, personnel workers in different types of work are recognizing the essential similarities in their purposes and objectives. This is shown by the following list of ways in which personnel work may help the individual. This list is based on

the statements in "The Student Personnel Point of View," [5] as modified by the Study Commission of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations. Some of the statements have been modified slightly in order to indicate their application to all types of personnel work, business, industry, and government service, as well as to schools and colleges.

WAYS IN WHICH PERSONNEL WORK HELPS THE INDIVIDUAL

1. In securing orientation to his working environment (his job, his school).
2. In securing satisfactory living conditions.
3. In attaining success in his work.
4. In securing a sense of belonging, of being accepted by some group or groups.
5. In developing good physical and mental habits.
6. In understanding himself.
7. In developing acceptable and effective ways of expressing his emotions.
8. In developing lively and significant interests.
9. In learning the value of time and money and the wise use of each.
10. In progressively developing appropriate vocational interests and plans.
11. In developing individuality and a sense of social responsibility in relation to his individuality.
12. In developing a sense of life values.
13. In developing the necessary flexibility and consideration to live and work with others.
14. In developing satisfying and socially acceptable adjustments to the opposite sex.
15. In discovering ethical and spiritual meanings in life.
16. In developing the responsibility and assuming the obligations of a citizen and worker in his community.

Some of these, at present, are more clearly seen in the field of education, but all, to some degree, apply to every type of personnel work. It is, of course, too much to say that each one of these is present in every school or every factory; they are, however, services that each school or factory must strive to

---

[5] WILLIAMSON, E. G., Chairman, "The Student Personnel Point of View," rev. ed., pp. 6–11, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1949.

attain if it is to become really effective. It should again be noted that these are conditions related to the entire organization, not merely to personnel work.

5. *The Meaning and Scope of Personnel Work in Education.* There is a tendency in personnel work, in the field of elementary and secondary education, to substitute the term "pupil personnel work" for "guidance." Some reasons for this are (1) the different meanings given to the term "guidance," (2) the narrow use of the term to indicate vocational guidance, (3) the lack of uniformity in the terms used in higher education and in elementary and secondary education for services that are identical or closely related, and (4) the recognition of the fundamental similarity between personnel work and guidance in all fields. This substitution would be very desirable if the two terms were completely synonymous; if guidance had no additional or significant meaning. However, it is the opinion of the author that the term "guidance" does still have a meaning and significance that is not found in "personnel work" and, therefore, it should be retained.

It is generally agreed that the purposes of guidance and those of pupil personnel work are the same. When we go beyond purpose we immediately run into difficulties of definition regarding what guidance is and what personnel work is. In the discussion on pages 71 to 78 guidance was described as the personal help that is given by one person to another in developing life goals, in making adjustments, and in solving problems that confront him in the attainment of his life goals. It is a service rendered, but not necessarily by any one group of workers. Personnel work is not so easily defined. We have clear statements of the purpose of personnel work and of the personnel point of view, fairly definite descriptions of personnel services, and outlines of personnel programs, but few if any clear statements of what student personnel work is. Sometimes it is described in terms of the activities of those who are called personnel workers. It is a service rendered by a group of extrainstructional workers called "personnel workers." This is the same concept as that of personnel work in industry and probably was closely related to it in origin. It indicates a type of service given by a group of workers—not teachers or administrators—that contributes in certain ways to the attainment of

the over-all purpose of the school, the development of the individual. It does not assert that some or all of the services performed as personnel work are not also performed by teachers and administrators; it does not attempt to classify as personnel workers all persons who perform the same services as the ones for which personnel work is especially organized. This is a clear and workable concept; it is not, however, generally accepted by personnel workers. Another definition or description is in terms of the type of service rendered. Cowley defines student personnel work as follows: "Personnel work constitutes all activities sponsored by educational institutions, *aside from curricular instruction,* in which the student's personal development is the primary consideration." [6]

This puts emphasis upon the individual student and his all-round development. It does not indicate who performs the service. It would, by inference, include the services given by principals, superintendents, clerks, and janitors, insofar as they give consideration to the personal development of the student. Cowley also sees clearly that the teacher definitely has or should have this objective clearly in mind.

Wrenn would include as personnel work "all the services that are provided for students, directly or indirectly, that will contribute to their balanced and wholesome growth toward maturity and social competence." Blaesser and Hopkins [7] make a somewhat more detailed statement as follows:

Student personnel work consists of those processes and functions undertaken by an educational institution which place emphasis upon:

1. The individual student and his intellectual, social, emotional, and physical development.

2. The building of curricula, methods of instruction, and extra-classroom programs to achieve the preceding objective.

3. Democratic procedures in working with students in order to help bring about their greatest possible self-realization.

4. The performance of student personnel functions rather than dependence upon specially designated individuals to perform them.

[6] COWLEY, W. H., The Nature of Personnel Work, *The Educational Record,* 18:198–226, April, 1936.

[7] BLAESSER, WILLARD W., and E. H. HOPKINS, "Higher Education for American Society," pp. 372–391, University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, 1949.

In accordance with the point of view expressed in (4), the authors state definitely that certain aspects of the work of the teacher, the administration, and presumably of all other workers in the institution, should be considered as personnel work. They finally make a strong plea for the coordination of all such services to individuals under "personnel work." In the excellent series of studies by the American Council on Education on "Personnel Work in Colleges and Universities" certain activities of teachers are included in student personnel work. The student personnel program is considered as including certain aspects of the work of the instructor and of the administrator as well.

Crawford [8] goes a bit beyond these statements when he says: "Student personnel work, as a whole, may be regarded as a means whereby the individual's total educative experience may be most effectively related to his personal needs and potentialities." These statements or definitions are quite satisfactory and generally accepted. Such services would include all the services now recognized as guidance. If, however, the concept of personnel work as the work done by the group of workers designated as "personnel workers" is accepted, many guidance activities would not be included, just as many personnel-work activities would not be included.

There is an unfortunate tendency to confuse the issue by identifying as "personnel workers" all those who do personnel work. This is shown in the definition by Good in the "Dictionary of Education": "Personnel workers are those school officials who are responsible for pupil-personnel activities, of whom some are full-time workers . . . while others, such as classroom teachers, principals, and superintendents, do pupil personnel work incidentally in the course of their regular duties." It is this tendency that is at present responsible for much of the confusion and controversy between personnel workers and guidance workers.

The concept given by Good, and accepted by many personnel workers, is plainly unacceptable. To accept it would mean that every member of the school personnel—the clerk, the janitor, a member of the school board, the school architect—is a personnel worker; since the only real purpose for any or all of them to

[8] CRAWFORD, A. B., Educational Personnel Work; The Field and Its Function, *Personnel Journal*, 10:405–410, April, 1932.

provide better conditions for the development of the students in the school. It would mean that whenever a teacher, an administrator, a clerk, or a janitor helps a student in his development he automatically becomes a personnel worker. According to this all education, all guidance, all counseling, all administration, is or should be personnel work. It leads only to confusion to say that when a teacher helps a pupil when he faces a difficulty in science he is a teacher; but that when he uses the science to help the pupil adjust himself to life or when he assists him in his adjustment to the school or to his fellow students, he becomes not a teacher but a personnel worker. The teacher of arithmetic or of any other subject should, then, be classified as a personnel worker, for the chief object of teaching is to promote the development and adjustment of the pupil. If this concept were to be carried out logically it would mean that whenever a teacher cleans the blackboard, picks up paper, regulates the temperature, or opens the windows, he automatically becomes a janitor. It thus becomes completely meaningless. The teacher has a dominant function to perform, teaching, but he also does many other things that are not teaching. Personnel workers are charged with certain large responsibilities emphasizing the development of the pupil as an individual; they have other duties as well. In most cases these additional duties include tests and testing and records and record keeping. All these activities are essential to effective personnel work and to guidance, but none is, in itself, either personnel work or guidance. It is only when they are used in helping pupils that they are a part of personnel work. Personnel workers may also teach, for teaching is by no means confined to "teachers." There is classroom teaching, playground teaching, study hall teaching, cafeteria teaching, passing-in-the-corridors teaching, etc. There may be incidental teaching. Teaching is helping pupils to learn; and whoever helps them to develop habits, attitudes, and interests is teaching.

To avoid difficulties and misunderstandings we should keep clearly in mind that personnel work is a service that should be performed by every member of the school staff. The *personnel worker* is one who has definite responsibilities in the program of personnel work but who does not and cannot perform the entire service. Chief among his responsibilities may be mentioned:

1. Nonpersonalized or nonpersonal services
   a. Tests and testing
   b. Records and record keeping
2. Personnel work
   a. Stimulation of the school staff to a realization of the function of education as the development of the entire individual
   b. Help to the school staff in analyzing and organizing their work so as to make it more effective
   c. Assistance to the school staff in seeing ways in which they can assist the pupil in activities outside the classroom
   d. Help in utilizing and coordinating agencies outside the school for the same purpose
   e. Help in the organization of the curricular program, and in coordinating all activities of the school and focussing them upon pupil development
   f. Direct, personal assistance to pupils

6. The Relation of Guidance to Personnel Work. Some leaders in student personnel work in higher institutions are strongly of the opinion that there is no longer any use for the term "guidance"; that pupil personnel work includes all the services now performed under the term "guidance." If the broader concept of personnel work, as stated by Cowley, Crawford, and Wrenn, is accepted, this is undoubtedly true; since, as personnel work includes all activities and services in the school that are directed toward the complete development of the individual, it would include guidance. If personnel work is considered to be the work done by "personnel workers," there is a large field of guidance work that would not be included—that done by teachers, principals, and other school workers.

The author accepts the broader point of view and would agree with Strang that guidance constitutes the central "service aspect of personnel work." This does not mean that there is no place for the term "guidance"; that "pupil personnel work" should be substituted. Pupil personnel work does not yet indicate to most workers in the elementary and secondary school the personalized service performed by guidance workers or by every member of the school staff; it is still identified with the activities of those who are called personnel workers or counselors. Guidance has a definite meaning, significance, and vitality, due partly to its name and partly to its use over the years, that pupil per-

sonnel work does not have. Something important would be lost if the term were to be discarded. Until pupil personnel work is better understood and until student personnel workers abandon their practice of including as personnel workers all who do personnel work, the term "guidance" will continue to be a very useful and important term. For these reasons the emphasis placed upon the guidance function in earlier editions of this book will be retained. However, recognizing the increasing importance of the concept of personnel work and accepting it as a valuable basic concept, the author has adopted the combination of the two terms "Guidance" and "Pupil Personnel Work" as best describing the area of service in which we are interested. Much of Part II and Chap. XXV of Part IV, are concerned with elements and services which are essential to guidance but which are not guidance. They are properly included under pupil personnel work.

IV. GUIDANCE AS AN ORGANIZED FUNCTION

1. *Guidance Inherent in the Entire School.* It is apparent that guidance is inherent in every part of the school that is concerned with assisting the pupil to make choices, adjustments, and interpretations. Any attempt to confine it to a given area of assistance or to restrict its function to a particular group of the school staff is certain to fail. Such an attempt to simplify the situation by an arbitrary division of the complex whole into separate parts inevitably sacrifices the unity of the process and results in greater confusion. Guidance involves all types of choices and must include within its scope the curriculum, teaching, supervision, and all other activities of the school. The classroom teacher can no more be divorced from guidance than can the counselor; in many ways he is fundamentally more important. On the other hand, to identify all of guidance with the teacher would be equally fatal. Adequate guidance requires the cooperation of all parts of the school—administrators, teachers, personnel workers, and specialists.

2. *Areas of Choice Not Provided for by the School.* Must we, then, spread the work of guidance throughout the school with no attempt to coordinate it or to provide specialized services? Is there no place for a department of guidance more or less separate from the work of the classroom teacher and the principal

but coordinated with them? To the latter question we must emphatically answer that there is such a place. There are areas of problems, choices, and adjustments, not adequately provided for in schools as now organized. Some of the most important of these arise at crucial places in the educational progress of the pupil; among such crucial places are (1) the end of the compulsory attendance age; (2) the completion of the sixth grade, especially when this comes at the time of or later than the legal age for leaving school; (3) the beginning of the junior high school; (4) the completion of the junior high school; (5) entrance to the senior high school; (6) the completion of the senior high school; (7) entrance to college; (8) the leaving of school at any time; (9) entrance to an occupation. The choice and adjustments at these times are of extreme importance and call for special forms of assistance. Many facts necessary for intelligent choice at these times are not provided in the ordinary school; many habits, attitudes, and ideals needed are, at best, only indirectly provided for. In proportion as the school is reorganized with these needs in view, to that extent will the special work of guidance in providing for information, habits, attitudes, and interests be reduced. However, with any type of reorganization now planned, there will be ample opportunity for attention to special ways in which needed information may be made available and assistance given.

3. *Special Crises Requiring Reorganization of Material.* Many choices and problems of adjustment to school and to occupation require a reorganization of information already obtained from classroom activities and a selection from among the facts at hand. Such reorganization and selection are often very difficult and beyond the power of the individual to make without assistance. They sometimes involve factors other than the individual himself. Difficulties that arise in school or occupation or home not infrequently are due to clash of personalities or to a complexity of conditions. Adjustment involves not merely the individual himself but other people and other factors; it is not something that he can work out by himself alone; it can be accomplished only by cooperative effort and this cannot be left to haphazard effort. Such cooperation must be planned.

4. *Problem Cases.* Guidance aims to develop individuals so that they will be able to solve their own problems as far as this is possible. But even the best efforts of the school will not result

sonnel work does not have. Something important would be lost if the term were to be discarded. Until pupil personnel work is better understood and until student personnel workers all who do personnel work, the term "guidance" will continue to be a very useful and important term. For these reasons the emphasis placed upon the guidance function in earlier editions of this book will be retained. However, recognizing the increasing importance of the concept of personnel work and accepting it as a valuable basic concept, the author has adopted the combination of the two terms "Guidance" and "Pupil Personnel Work" as best describing the area of service in which we are interested. Much of Part II and Chap. XXV of Part IV, are concerned with elements and services which are essential to guidance but which are not guidance. They are properly included under pupil personnel work.

IV. GUIDANCE AS AN ORGANIZED FUNCTION

1. *Guidance Inherent in the Entire School.* It is apparent that guidance is inherent in every part of the school that is concerned with assisting the pupil to make choices, adjustments, and interpretations. Any attempt to confine it to a given area of assistance or to restrict its function to a particular group of the school staff is certain to fail. Such an attempt to simplify the situation by an arbitrary division of the complex whole into separate parts inevitably sacrifices the unity of the process and results in greater confusion. Guidance involves all types of choices and must include within its scope the curriculum, teaching, supervision, and all other activities of the school. The classroom teacher can no more be divorced from guidance than can the counselor; in many ways he is fundamentally more important. On the other hand, to identify all of guidance with the teacher would be equally fatal. Adequate guidance requires the cooperation of all parts of the school—administrators, teachers, personnel workers, and specialists.

2. *Areas of Choice Not Provided for by the School.* Must we, then, spread the work of guidance throughout the school with no attempt to coordinate it or to provide specialized services? Is there no place for a department of guidance more or less separate from the work of the classroom teacher and the principal

a certain part of many kinds of assistance can most efficiently and economically be performed by the specially organized department of guidance or personnel work.

We are yet in the experimental stage of guidance; we do not yet know just what problems can most advantageously be handled by specially organized guidance departments. As the curricular and supervisory activities of the school become conscious of the guidance motive and are reorganized in accordance with it, more and more of the actual guidance work can be left advantageously to these agencies. We cannot accurately forecast exactly what these will be, nor can we determine completely what activities, if any, should always be performed by the special guidance bureau.

At present, organized departments of guidance or pupil personnel are concerned chiefly with certain crises, certain areas of problems, certain very important adjustments that the ordinary work of the school either does not provide for at all or does so very inadequately.

V. Phases of Guidance

1. *Kinds or Phases of Guidance.* The kinds of guidance are as varied as the problems confronting youth. The brief list of youth problems given in Chap. II reveals their variety and complexity. It is, of course, impossible to make any hard and fast classification of these problems; they are often so interrelated as to make it impossible to divide them; their causes often lie deep in the nature and environment of the individual. While this should continually be kept in mind, it is sometimes useful to classify them under separate heads according to what seem to be their major emphases. The list of problems given on pages 58–60 is classified under eight heads: (1) health and physical development, (2) home and family relationships, (3) leisure time, (4) personality, (5) religious life and church affiliations, (6) school, (7) social (including moral and civic), (8) vocational. These headings might well be used to designate the different kinds of guidance. Thus we may distinguish for purposes of discussion eight kinds of guidance according to what may seem to be the major emphasis of each problem.

2. *Unitary Character of Guidance.* Although we might, for purposes of analysis and discussion, separate guidance into the

in the entire elimination of problem cases. There will always be some occasions when every student will need special assistance, and it is probable that some students will need help practically always. Special facilities must be provided for meeting these needs.

5. *Scope of an Organized Guidance Program.* Some superintendents and principals believe that no specialized personnel is necessary for guidance, that the classroom teacher can provide all the assistance needed, and that it is the function of the principal to provide for coordination of effort. This attitude is due in part to the very real danger that the provision of a separate guidance department may result in a feeling on the part of the teachers that all guidance functions will and should be performed by this department and that they have no responsibility for it. In some cases, it is due to the failure of the principal or superintendent to understand fully what the function of guidance is. Some of this confusion could be avoided if we called the specialized department "personnel work" instead of "guidance." Guidance is a function of the entire school; the function of the department of personnel work is to coordinate the guidance activities of the school and to supplement these activities by specialized work as may be needed. This department would also have the responsibility of keeping constantly before the rest of the staff the need for assistance in areas that are likely to be neglected and of stimulating all to more effective action. In some schools and colleges this department is called "student welfare" and is coordinate with administration on one hand and instruction on the other. The scope and function of any specially organized department of guidance or pupil personnel in the school system will depend upon the effectiveness with which the system as a whole is organized and administered from the guidance point of view. Organized guidance must do for children what the rest of the system fails to do; it must build upon and supplement the regular work of the school. If it is found by experience that part of the work, especially that concerned with securing information and developing the habits, ideals, interests, and techniques necessary to intelligent choice, can be done better if organized as a regular part of classroom work, then this should not be done by the specially organized guidance work. It will undoubtedly be found that certain areas of problems and

Many sources of misunderstanding would be removed if we would think of guidance in terms of the choice to be made, the problem to be solved, the adjustment to be effected, or, better still, the individual to be helped, and not attempt to distinguish carefully between various kinds of guidance. Thus, instead of saying school guidance, we would say guidance in the selection of a school; instead of curriculum guidance, guidance in the choice of a curriculum, etc. The chief difficulties with such a plan are first, that it multiplies the name under which various phases of guidance must be placed and provides no basis for organization; and second, that some of the terms, like vocational guidance, are so fully established that it would be difficult and possibly unwise to attempt to change them. We should be very careful, however, to interpret the general names used for various forms of guidance in terms of *choices to be made,* of *problems to be solved.* For example, vocational guidance includes (1) guidance in selecting an occupation, (2) guidance in selecting and securing the preparation for an occupation, (3) guidance in finding a job, (4) guidance in adjusting to the job and making progress in it. In the same way, school guidance involves (1) guidance in selecting a school, (2) guidance in gaining entrance to it, (3) guidance in adjusting to various phases of school life. In the succeeding discussion, we shall, therefore, make use of the general terms but shall in every case describe definitely the choice or crises that are included under each; it is the individual and his growth and integration that are our chief concern.

We should continually keep in mind that all forms of guidance are interrelated, that each involves a consideration of the child as a whole—not merely of that part which is concerned with the particular choice that he has to make at any certain time.

3. *Kinds of Guidance Needing Special Consideration.* Although we recognize that all the problems of youth need careful and constant attention by the entire school staff, the traditional school is not so organized as to provide adequately for many of them. The modern school with its emphasis upon the development of the individual and its conception of the teacher as the guide rather than the dictator is admirably equipped to assume the major responsibility for many of these problems. Among these are problems related to (1) health and physical development, (2) social activities, (3) the instructional side of school

eight aspects or phases noted above, we should not make the mistake of thinking that they can always be thus separated in practice. Any attempt to do so would result in a one-sided point of view and unwise and ineffective guidance. It must be admitted that some problems are very specific, at least on the surface. Some seem to be purely vocational, some purely educational. In such cases, there may be some reason to consider them as specifically vocational or educational. But if great harm is not to be done, we must make sure that other factors are not hidden beneath the surface.

Some argue strenuously that vocational guidance includes all forms of guidance and that *it* should be made the center—that all other guidance should be developed from the vocational standpoint. This has been the prevailing point of view in most of the older books on guidance, but it is so illogical and so dangerous that it is gradually but surely giving way to a broader and saner attitude. The point of view that "vocational guidance" is the all-inclusive term necessitates the belief that the entire life of the individual is determined by the vocation he follows and that the life of the child should be, and will be, determined by his future occupation. But, obviously, our lives are much broader than our occupations. No one can truthfully say that his aesthetic, recreational, civic, or moral development is determined entirely by his occupation or that what he does in his leisure time is even primarily for the purpose of increasing his efficiency as a worker. It is true that, for most people, satisfaction in life is dependent upon a source of livelihood, but it does not follow that because of this all of one's life must be centered around his occupation. The same logic would demand that because one cannot live without something to eat or something to wear, all his life must be centered around food and clothes. We know and believe that "life is more than meat and the body than raiment." Education is not concerned merely with the training necessary for an occupation; it is concerned with the development of *individuals* from the all-round point of view; and guidance, as a definite part of the educational process, is also concerned and must be concerned with the *entire* individual. We might as well say that all education should be considered as a part of vocational education as to say that all guidance should be considered as a part of vocational guidance.

with his problem as it is, no matter how many people may enter into the guidance activity. //

VI. Aims and Purposes of Guidance

1. *General Purpose and Methods.* Guidance of all kinds has a common purpose—to assist the individual to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations in his life. This is done, in general, through (1) information that he is helped to secure; (2) habits, techniques, attitudes, ideals, and interests that he is helped to develop; and (3) wise counsel, by which direct assistance is given him to make the choices, adjustments, and interpretations.[9] The situations in the life of youth for which organized guidance in the school may be expected to give assistance are in connection with (1) school, (2) vocation, and (3) leisure time.

The differences that exist between these various aspects of guidance are largely such differences in information, habits, techniques, attitudes, ideals, and interests on the one hand and in choices, adjustments, and interpretations on the other, as may be necessary to meet and solve intelligently the different types of problem that confront individuals. The counsel given is necessarily as varied as the nature of the problem and the need of the individuals for help. The point of view is always the same, to give such assistance as each individual may need and to give it in such a way as to increase his ability to solve his problems without assistance.

The close interrelationship between all forms of guidance serves also to emphasize the unity of all guidance and the futility of attempting to classify different kinds of guidance into completely separate groups, to put them in separate compartments. The assistance we call "guidance" is directed toward the solution of problems of *individuals.* These problems are not school problems or vocational problems or leisure-time problems, though sometimes a problem may be so predominantly one kind as to make possible such a classification. Problems usually contain

[9] It has already been recognized that information, habits, attitudes, ideals, no matter how they are developed, help in decisions and adjustments, but it is contended that the process by which the individual reaches them will determine whether or not it is guidance.

work and, in part, (4) religious life and church affiliations. Three areas need special consideration and somewhat specialized techniques: (1) vocational, (2) the noninstructional part of school life, and (3) leisure time. Because they are not adequately provided for in the regular organization of even the modern school and because they require specialized techniques not possessed by the usual teacher, they need personnel trained for this purpose and will be given special consideration. Home and family relationships and personality are in some respects also specialized, but they are so intimately bound up with all other areas as to make impossible any clear separation in function. It should, however, be clearly understood that any problem of youth may be the concern of any member of the school staff. The major responsibility for guidance in connection with the four areas of problems in the first group must rest upon the staff of teachers and administrators, while the major responsibility for guidance in connection with the three areas in the second group will rest upon those in charge of what is called "personnel work." If guidance is to be effective, each of these groups of workers must supplement the work of the other. There are problems in the first group that need the help of the personnel worker and for those in the second group the help of the instructional staff is indispensable. Effective guidance in the school is dependent upon the cooperation of the entire school staff. The particular part of the work of guidance done by the instructional staff and the personnel group will vary with the organization of the school and the workers available. If certain changes in the preparation of teachers are made, it may well be true that more responsibility may rest upon the teacher, but for some time to come the major responsibilities will probably be as indicated.

This concept of guidance as a unitary function does not imply, as some seem to indicate, that all the guidance of a given individual should be given by one person, the teacher, the homeroom sponsor, the counselor. It merely emphasizes (1) the fact that problems of individuals are usually complicated, having many elements, and cannot be solved by attempting to separate them into their elements and (2) the necessity for a unified, coordinated approach that will accept the individual as he is,

elements of all of these and more. They cannot be solved suc-
cessfully unless every aspect of the individual problem is fully
taken into consideration. We cannot emphasize too much or
repeat too often the point already stressed that these problems
are problems of individual boys and girls, men and women.
Every guidance worker would do well to follow the practice of
one of our most successful counselors, who, when a student
comes to her for counsel, closes her eyes and prays, "O Lord, help
me to treat this boy as an individual."

2. *Help Given by the School.* If we are to give adequate help,
many things are necessary. We must reorganize and revitalize
our schools; certain social, economic, and industrial changes
must be made, and many new kinds of experts developed. These
changes are extremely important for many other reasons but
have their greatest value, so far as guidance is concerned, in
assisting the individual to make wise decisions at the time of
crises in his life. The chief ways in which the school helps the
child in this process are:

1. It attempts to help him to secure a clear idea of the necessity
for securing adequate information about the results of various choices
and, when possible, for delaying choice until such information is
obtained.

2. It assists him to secure adequate information and helps him to
develop techniques that will enable him to secure such information
when he needs it.

3. It assists him to develop such habits, attitudes, interests, and
ideals as will help him later in his choices.

4. It provides tryout experiences, when possible, in the lines of
activity which present themselves to him for choice, which need inter-
pretation, and to which adjustments may be necessary.

5. It assists him to analyze his information and experiences in order
to find his points of strength and weakness and to select facts essential
to wise choice. In doing this, it assists him to form the habit of
analyzing facts and situations.

6. It utilizes the interests he has and helps him to find opportuni-
ties for the development of interests in many other fields.

7. It gives him counsel and advice when needed and to the extent
that is needed.

In this outline of the help given by the school, we have stressed
(1) the absolute dependence of wise choices upon facts and the

CHAPTER IV

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

We discussed, somewhat in detail, in Chap. I many of the conditions in modern society that make organized guidance and personnel work necessary. In order that there may be no confusion regarding the meaning and purpose of guidance, the fundamental assumptions upon which the discussion of guidance in this book is founded will be stated and then discussed in detail.

I. STATEMENT OF ASSUMPTIONS

1. The differences between individuals in native capacity, abilities, and interests are significant.

2. Variations within the individual are significant.

3. Native abilities are not usually specialized.

4. Race, color, and sex have little or no relation to aptitudes and abilities.

5. Many important crises cannot be successfully met by young people without assistance.

6. The school is in a strategic position to give the assistance needed.

✓7. Guidance is not prescriptive but aims at progressive ability for self-guidance.

II. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INDIVIDUALS IN NATIVE CAPACITY, ABILITIES, AND INTERESTS

1. *Differences in Native Capacity.* It is generally believed that individuals differ widely in native capacity. We no longer hold to the opinion that all are born equal in capacities any more than that all are born boys, or with red hair or brown eyes. In spite of this generally accepted principle, guidance, as well as other parts of education, sometimes seems to assume the opposite and bases its conclusions on the principle that anyone can

6, LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER McD., and MARGARET R. SMITH: "A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education," Chap. I, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. Distinguishes and defines three aspects of the personnel program.

7. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. An excellent critical analysis of personnel work in relation to guidance.

8. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION: "Guidance in Educational Institutions," Thirty-seventh Yearbook, Part I, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938. A critical discussion of guidance as related to the development of life goals.

9. SHANK, DONALD J., and others: "The Teacher as Counselor," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948. An interesting description of the part of the teacher in personnel work.

10. STRANG, RUTH: "Pupil Personnel and Guidance," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. A discussion of the place of guidance and personnel work in education.

11. WARTERS, JANE: "High School Personnel Work Today," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. A synthesis and interpretation of current conceptions of personnel work.

12. WILLIAMSON, E. G.: "Counseling Adolescents," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950. A presentation of the "clinical" method of guidance.

13. WILLIAMSON, E. G., and M. E. HAHN: "Introduction to High School Counseling," Chap. III, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940. An interesting presentation of the point of view of the authors with relation to the purpose and function of guidance.

14. WILLIAMSON, E. G., Chairman: "The Student Personnel Point of View," rev. ed., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1949.

TABLE XVII. RANGE IN INTELLIGENCE

Distribution of Intelligence among 905 Unselected School Children [1]

Intelligence Quotients	Percentage
136–145	0.55
126–135	2.3
116–125	9.0
106–115	23.1
96–105	33.9
86– 95	20.1
76– 85	8.6
66– 75	2.3
56– 65	0.33

[1] TERMAN, L. M., "The Measurement of Intelligence," p. 66, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1916. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

TABLE XVIII. MEMORY SPAN FOR DIGITS

Boys and Girls in the Elementary School [1]

Age	Number of cases	Number of digits recalled							
		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	5	1	4				'		
6	104	3	65	33	3				
7	248	6	110	93	25	14			
8	300	2	90	108	62	32	6		
9	288	2	66	110	59	43	7	1	
10	316	..	52	95	80	70	16	3	
11	329	..	26	102	94	78	25	4	
12	404	..	25	113	120	97	43	6	
13	431	..	9	108	92	138	53	30	1
14	274	..	9	65	64	84	29	18	5
15	92	..	3	23	17	38	5	1	5
16	22	..	1	4	6	5	2	3	1
17	1	..	...	1					
Totals	2,814	14	460	855	622	599	186	66	12

[1] HUMPSTONE, H. J., "Some Aspects of the Memory Span Test: A Study in Association," Ph.D. thesis, p. 21, The Psychological Clinic Press, Philadelphia, 1917. (Tables I and II combined.) (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

become anything he chooses. All that he needs is proper assistance and the "will to do."

Although it is impossible, with present methods, to measure native capacity directly, accurate observations on young children and tests of rapidity of learning and quality of performance, as well as many other specialized tests, indicate a range of difference in native capacity that is enormous.

It is probably unnecessary here to discuss in detail the basis for this conclusion; it is too well known and too generally accepted to need further demonstration. In order to indicate the general nature of the data, a few investigations will be cited as samples of the material involved.

Table XVII shows that 0.55 per cent of the 905 children had an I.Q. of 136 to 145; 2.3 per cent had an I.Q. of 126 to 135; and 0.33 per cent had an I.Q. below 65.

Table XVIII shows a great range in memory span in children of the same age. In nine-year-old children, the range is from a memory span of three to that of nine digits.

Table XIX shows a wide range in reading ability in children of the same grade, ranging from a low score of between 0 and 8.5 to a high score of 47.

Table XX clearly shows a wide range in abilities in a number of different kinds of tests. As has been said, these do not test capacity directly, but capacity as influenced by training. They do serve, however, as a rough measure of native capacity as well as of present ability.

Moreover, certain abilities have been analyzed and found unmistakably to be dependent upon certain physical traits that are at least congenital if not actually hereditary. Capacity for vocal music is partly dependent upon shape, length, and thickness of vocal chords; size and position of resonance chambers; configuration of mouth and nasal cavities, etc. Persons without these, though they may have what is called "temperament," "artistic ability," tone imagery, pitch, and all the other abilities that go to make up vocal capacity, can never become singers of renown. No amount of training will make up for these qualities that they lack.

Recent studies in physiology and psychology indicate the importance of types of metabolism in determining or influencing human behavior. In general terms, metabolism is the continuous

TABLE XX. RANGE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE BEST AND THE POOREST
IN A SERIES OF MENTAL TESTS [1]

	Best record	Poorest record	Ratio
Memory span.............	8 words	4 words	1:2
Memorizing...............	1 minute	4 minutes	1:4
E test...................	25 seconds	1 minute 30 seconds	1:3.6
Er test..................	1 minute 30 seconds	3 minutes 25 seconds	1:2.3
Opposites................	30 seconds	1 minute 50 seconds	1:1.37
Genus-species............	45 seconds	2 minutes 5 seconds	1:2.8
Addition.................	31 seconds	2 minutes	1:3.9
Subtraction..............	20 seconds	1 minute 30 seconds	1:4.5
Average..............	....	....	1:3.35

[1] STARCH, DANIEL, "Educational Psychology," p. 30, The Macmillan Company,
New York, 1928. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

process by which living cells or tissues undergo chemical change.
It consists of the slow combustion or burning of fuels together
with the many accompanying reactions which take place in the
multitude of cells in the body. This is a very intricate process
that is characteristic of all living, growing things. The machin-
ery of this is similar in man and higher animals but there are
significant differences in the process between men and animals.
There are also significant differences between different human
beings. There is evidence to show that "each human being has
a metabolic pattern which differs in some respects from that of
all his fellows."

Just how important these differences in metabolic patterns are
in the determination of human behavior and exactly how they
function in this capacity we do not yet know. We do know that
they are vital factors in the following: (1) tendencies to become
fat or lean, (2) reaction to drugs of various kinds, to vitamins,
to the use of tobacco and alcohol, to elements that cause allergies,
and (3) to color of hair and skin. They may also have great
influence upon rates of learning and intelligence. We also know
that, in large measure, metabolic patterns are hereditary. It is,
therefore, highly probable that such metabolic differences are
determiners of many traits of character and personality or at least
profoundly affect them.

TABLE XIX. DISTRIBUTION OF READING SCORES (COMPREHENSION, MONROE)

In Grades 6, 7, and 8[1]

Grades	Scores																Total	Me-dian
	0-8.5	8.0-11.5	11.0-13.5	13.0-17.5	17.0-18.5	18.0-19.5	19.0-20.5	20.0-21.9	22.0-23.5	23.0-25.2	25.3-26.9	27.0-29.9	30.0-34.9	35.0-39.9	40.0-44.9	45.0-47.0		
6A	12	22	21	27	14	11	4	21	15	5	10	14	9	6	5	2	198	19.3
6B	9	9	9	23	6	6	10	20	11	10	4	17	15	6	3	0	161	21.6
7A	8	10	20	34	11	10	14	5	9	13	12	11	19	15	5	0	196	20.2
7B	4	5	9	15	8	13	8	10	19	17	16	16	21	16	13	5	174	24.6
8A	1	7	6	19	4	6	6	12	13	18	17	26	27	27	25	5	233	27.3
8B	1	4	1	12	4	5	3	11	11	16	9	11	34	30	21	13	186	30.9

[1] GAUVER, F. M., "Misplacement of Children in Grades Six, Seven, and Eight in a Large City School System," Ph.D. thesis, p. 25, University of Pennsylvania, 1920.

Table XX. Range of Differences between the Best and the Poorest in a Series of Mental Tests [1]

	Best record	Poorest record	Ratio
Memory span.............	8 words	4 words	1:2
Memorizing..............	1 minute	4 minutes	1:4
E test..................	25 seconds	1 minute 30 seconds	1:3.6
Er test.................	1 minute 30 seconds	3 minutes 25 seconds	1:2.3
Opposites...............	30 seconds	1 minute 50 seconds	1:1.37
Genus-species...........	45 seconds	2 minutes 5 seconds	1:2.8
Addition................	31 seconds	2 minutes	1:3.9
Subtraction.............	20 seconds	1 minute 30 seconds	1:4.5
Average................	....	....	1:3.35

[1] Starch, Daniel, "Educational Psychology," p. 30, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

process by which living cells or tissues undergo chemical change. It consists of the slow combustion or burning of fuels together with the many accompanying reactions which take place in the multitude of cells in the body. This is a very intricate process that is characteristic of all living, growing things. The machinery of this is similar in man and higher animals but there are significant differences in the process between men and animals. There are also significant differences between different human beings. There is evidence to show that "each human being has a metabolic pattern which differs in some respects from that of all his fellows."

Just how important these differences in metabolic patterns are in the determination of human behavior and exactly how they function in this capacity we do not yet know. We do know that they are vital factors in the following: (1) tendencies to become fat or lean, (2) reaction to drugs of various kinds, to vitamins, to the use of tobacco and alcohol, to elements that cause allergies, and (3) to color of hair and skin. They may also have great influence upon rates of learning and intelligence. We also know that, in large measure, metabolic patterns are hereditary. It is, therefore, highly probable that such metabolic differences are determiners of many traits of character and personality or at least profoundly affect them.

If these tentative conclusions prove to be valid they will indicate the necessity for a very careful investigation into the basic elements of human nature, especially those that are related to metabolic patterns. They also emphasize the increasing importance of the physician, the nurse, and the psychologist in the processes of education and guidance.

The controversies that have raged around the relative influence of nature and nurture are chiefly concerned with the number of differences that are due to each factor rather than with the existence of differences due to heredity. There can be little doubt of the importance of early environment as determining personality traits and interests and as permanently affecting general mental ability. Recent experimentation has made us somewhat more careful about attributing differences in present ability entirely to differences in heredity. They have not caused us to doubt the fact that hereditary differences are important. They have given us more hope that some of the inequalities present in young children may be removed by early stimulating experiences.

2. *Accelerating Influence of Capacity.* We must, then, take for granted that there is a wide range of differences in native capacity. Whether or not we agree on the question of the relative influence of heredity and environment, we must admit that by the time the children come to school, and especially by the time they reach the seventh grade, these native capacities have been decidedly changed by their environment—their home and school life and other experiences. Original capacities that have been stimulated by home and school, or even merely allowed to develop, produce unusual abilities and result in increased differences between those who have large capacities and those who have small capacities. The accelerating influence upon ability or achievement of any given capacity may be illustrated by a familiar law of physics. Native capacity may be thought of roughly as a constant force that produces acceleration. In physics, the formula for the total space passed over by a body acted upon by a constant force is $s = \frac{1}{2}at^2$, or the total space passed over equals one-half the constant force, or acceleration, multiplied by the square of the time elapsed. Suppose, then, Henry Brown has a capacity for learning Latin equal to 10, and John Smith has a capacity of 5. Turn them loose on Latin for a given length of time, say five months, and let this time equal 5

periods a week or a total of 100 periods. Then the formulas that indicate the total accomplishment of each of the two boys will be as follows:

$$\text{Henry Brown, } S = \tfrac{1}{2}\; 10 \times 100^2 = 50,000$$

$$\text{John Smith, } \quad S = \tfrac{1}{2}\; 5 \times 100^2 = 25,000$$

In other words, in five months, Henry would have read twice as much as John. This might easily mean that Henry had completed the entire requirements in Caesar in five months, while John had completed only one-half this amount. There can be little doubt that capacity does act as a constantly accelerating force, *when individuals are allowed to develop naturally.*

3. *Decreased Original Differences.* Although it is true that differences in native capacity, if allowed to develop, result inevitably in greater differences, it is also true that if inhibited they may result in decreased differences. Suppose two children start school together: one of them has marked originality and initiative; the other very little of either. Suppose they are assigned to the same teacher who does not believe in freedom or in developing originality. She wishes the children to do what she tells them and nothing else. In such an atmosphere, the child who has initiative and originality will rapidly get into trouble and, if he is "intelligent," will soon learn to curb his impulses to originate and to initiate things. Acted upon year after year by such inhibitions, the two will tend to become nearly alike: neither one will show initiative; they will both conform, at least insofar as schoolwork and outward manifestations are concerned. While this effort to secure uniformity in action is harmful in the case of initiative, it is very helpful and necessary in inhibiting traits and manifestations that are harmful, such as expressions of anger and jealousy. The assumption that there are differences does not imply that we should always attempt to make these differences greater; it often means that we should try to decrease them. But, in any case, we should *recognize* their existence.

4. *Function of the School.* Children, then, have varying capacities. They have impulses to do many things, some of which are useful and some of which are harmful, and they have these impulses in varying degrees. It is the function of the school to

stimulate and reward useful impulses wherever found and to inhibit harmful impulses. It is, then, of the utmost importance that in school we find what impulses are useful to society and hence should be stimulated, and what are harmful and should be inhibited. There is great danger that school life will inhibit the very things that will be most useful later and even stimulate some that will be harmful later.

We take, then, for our first assumption that there is a great range of difference in native capacities, in abilities, and in interests among children in school.

III. Variations within Individuals

Not only is each individual different from other individuals, he is variable in many characteristics within himself and from day to day. Few children, even among those we call normal, progress in a uniform way in all phases of their development. Those physiological and mental characteristics that are usually associated with physiological maturation are by no means constant. At any given time the developing child may show certain characteristics or traits and be lacking in others. He may have a high degree of intellectual maturity and still be immature socially and intellectually. Moreover, young people vary from day to day so that there is no standard pattern of behavior upon which we can depend. No counselor, alone, can possibly cope with such variability; this burden must rest primarily upon the teacher who has daily and hourly contact with him.

IV. Infrequency of Specialized Abilities

Another basic assumption of guidance is that, on the whole, individuals are not endowed by nature with abilities so varied and specialized as to make it possible for them to succeed in only one specialized occupation. We are not here concerned with special interests or specific abilities that may have been developed by the time the child enters school or reaches the grade where decision is necessary. These should always be taken into consideration. But they are not necessarily determinative. He can develop other interests. We are here dealing with the extent to which his heredity determines his specialized abilities. Stated positively, our assumption is that the majority of individuals have abilities, as far as native endowment is concerned,

that will make it possible for them to be equally successful in any one of several related occupations. This assumption is basic for intelligent guidance. It should be carefully noted that this statement refers to innate, not acquired, abilities. Specialized abilities are developed by anyone who devotes himself to one line or a group of related lines of activity. After training, specialized abilities are present because such abilities are the object of such training. We are, however, here concerned with the individual before he undergoes such intensive training. To some extent, specialized training, especially in music, has often been received before the individual enters school, and hence specialized ability is present very early. In most cases this is not true, and for this majority it is still true that when they enter school specialized abilities are rare.

1. *Effects on Method of Approach to Problems of Guidance.* The entire method of approach to guidance problems depends upon the attitude one takes toward this assumption. If we believe that individuals are endowed by nature with specialized abilities and that they will not be vocationally successful unless they find the specific occupations or jobs in which these specific abilities are manifested, the job of guidance would be, first, to find what the specific ability, "the destiny," of each individual is. Suppose, in the case of Henry Thatcher, we find that this specific ability is plumbing. We would next help him to secure training in plumbing; finally, we would assist him to find a plumbing job. The task is largely that of discovering what this one innate ability is. If it happens that there are more "innate" plumbers than there is need for, then some are foredoomed to failure. If, on the contrary, we believe that specialized innate abilities are rare, we would say that this person could probably succeed in any one of a number of occupations: plumbing, stone masonry, plastering, carpentry, paper hanging, etc. (if these occupations are found to be closely related in abilities required). The first job of guidance would then be to discover the abilities, general in nature, possessed by the individual. If he had the abilities that would enable him to succeed in a certain group of occupations, the selection of an occupation from this group of related occupations would depend upon a variety of factors. Whether he would go into plumbing or carpentry would depend upon whether he was more interested in one than the other; upon what

differences there were between the two occupations in the character of the work, in the chance of advancement, in remuneration, in the possibility of getting a job. In other words, his success would not be predetermined by certain innate, variously specialized abilities, but by other factors, many of which are capable of being controlled.

2. *Evidence for the Assumption.* It may well be asked what evidence we have that will enable us to decide which of these two principles is correct. We must admit that, so far, we have insufficient precise data to make a decision one way or another absolutely certain. The very nature of the problem makes it exceedingly difficult to solve. No one can live his life once and then begin afresh and live it over again; we cannot enter one occupation, leave it, and enter another uninfluenced by the experience in the first occupation. Ordinarily, if one is successful in one line of work, he remains in it and does not change to another. In spite of this difficulty, there are certain investigations and observations that cannot fail to carry considerable weight.

a. Element of Chance in the Selection of Occupations. In the first place, various studies of the methods of choosing occupations and of securing jobs show clearly that in most cases this selection has been largely by chance; the possibility of getting a job, the chance remark of a friend, the random choice of one who did not know what he wanted to do; all these and many more have been the determining factors in selection. The proportion of successes following such selection are too great to be attributed to the mere probability that those who were successful hit by accident upon the one job that would ensure their success. One might, it is true, attribute each of these successes to a special act of Providence in leading the man to the particular job that was predetermined for him. But the same reasoning would lead us to conclude that Providence was very discriminating and very partial, or else that the same power led some men to choose jobs for which they were unfitted and, therefore, foredoomed to failure. If Providence were responsible, it would scarcely be possible for a mere human to determine which cases of success were due to the one attitude and which to the other! This, then, seems to be an indication, though a very slight one, that abilities are not narrowly specialized.

b. Success in Different Occupations. There are also numerous cases in which a man who has been successful in one occupation has, for some reason, changed to another occupation and has been equally successful in the second one. He may have been employed by a firm that failed, making it necessary for him to seek other employment. Many men employed before the two World Wars came back after a few years to find their jobs gone and themselves under necessity of changing their occupations. Many were equally successful in the new occupations. These cases, though not numerous enough to enable us to draw definite conclusions, seem to indicate the validity of the assumption that abilities are not specialized in any narrow way.

c. Complex Abilities Required by Occupations. Another argument for this point of view is furnished by the occupations themselves. Occupations, on the whole, involve many different kinds of activity. Success in any one is not due to the possession of a single specialized ability, quality, or characteristic. It is due to a complex of these abilities or characteristics, each one of which is more or less specialized. This fact is fully illustrated by the various analyses of jobs, both activity analyses (the listing of things that workers have to do), and ability analyses (the listing of abilities that one must possess in order to be successful). Thus, an occupation, x, may demand that one who is successful should have abilities a, b, c, and d. But successful workers do not all have the same degree of these specialized abilities. We do not know, and cannot determine at present, what combination of abilities makes for success. It is probable that any one of several combinations of these abilities may produce success:

$$a + b + \tfrac{1}{2}c + 2d = S$$

$$2a + \tfrac{1}{2}b + 4c + \tfrac{1}{2}d = S$$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}a + 3b + 2c + \tfrac{1}{4}d = S$$

That is, a large amount of one ability may make up for a lack in another. Some persons allege that Mary Garden did not have as fine a voice as certain other opera singers who were distinctly less successful than she. However, her beauty, her stage presence, her ability as an actress, and her general personality atoned for alleged vocal limitations and contributed to her success. If this is true, it would be extremely difficult to think of

general ability, such as would ensure success in any occupation, as being possessed in a specialized way by anyone.

d. The Same Abilities Often Required by Different Occupations. Job analysis has also shown that many occupations involve the same situations, the same or similar activities, and necessitate the same or very similar abilities and characteristics. The lawyer, the physician, the preacher, some types of engineer, and the teacher all deal with other people, and their jobs involve the ability to get along with men and women. Success in each profession depends upon certain so-called "personality" traits. Each also demands the ability to complete successfully work in a college or higher institution. Other qualities and abilities that are common to all of these might easily be listed. Some one occupation may demand more of one quality than does another, it is true, but it is also true that a lack of one quality often is overcome by an abundance of another. The superior skill of a surgeon may overcome a lack of personality; the good workmanship of a dentist may make up for a lack of gentleness. Normal human beings are not totally lacking in some one characteristic or another but usually possess a fair degree of many characteristics. If this is true, and it seems beyond reasonable doubt, the possession of abilities *a, b, c,* and *d* may indicate that one may be successful in several occupations *w, x, y,* or *z.* Even among those occupations that seem most specialized, the artistic, it is by no means clear that they are necessarily narrowly specialized. There is no occupation of "musician," but there are violinists, cornetists, pianists, harpists, vocalists, etc. Are abilities in these narrowly specialized? Is one born to be a pianist and not a violinist, a harpist and not a cornetist? We know that there are certain fundamental abilities underlying each one of these specialized occupations, such as rhythm, tone imagery, pitch, and, except for the vocalist, ability to achieve certain skill in manipulation of the fingers. Given these abilities, one might, conceivably, achieve at least a moderate success in any one of the occupations mentioned. Most great musicians are able performers on more than one kind of instrument.

e. Correlation between Abilities. Still another line of approach in the proof of the assumption that specialized abilities are rare is that offered by studies showing the correlation between various abilities that make for success in schoolwork.

Many such studies have been made. A sample of such studies is given for purposes of illustration (see Table XXI).

TABLE XXI. CORRELATIONS AMONG ABILITIES IN SCHOOL SUBJECTS [1]

Arithmetic and language	0.85
Arithmetic and geography	0.83
Arithmetic and history	0.73
Arithmetic and reading	0.67
Arithmetic and spelling	0.55
Language and geography	0.85
Language and history	0.77
Language and reading	0.83
Language and spelling	0.71
Geography and history	0.81
Geography and reading	0.80
Geography and spelling	0.52
History and reading	0.67
History and spelling	0.37
Reading and spelling	0.58

[1] STARCH, DANIEL, "Educational Psychology," p. 62, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

A coefficient of correlation is a measure of the relationship between two qualities, attributes, etc. Correlations range from +1 to −1. Suppose we were trying to find what relationship exists between a student's marks in algebra and in French. A correlation of 0 would mean that the mark he receives in algebra is absolutely no indication of what he would get in French, and *vice versa*. If he got a mark of "A" in algebra, he might fail in French; he might get a "D" or a "C" or even an "A." You could not predict what his mark in French would be. If the correlation were +1, we could say with certainty that, if he got a mark of "A" in algebra, he would get a mark of "A" in French. If he failed in French, he would also fail in algebra. A correlation of −1 would mean that, if he received a mark of "A" in algebra, he would fail in French; that is, that the two abilities were opposed to one another. Coefficients of from +0.30 to +0.50 mean that a mark of "A" in French indicates that the mark in algebra will be likely to be average or above, though there will be cases where the mark will be lower still. Other things being equal, the higher the positive coefficient becomes, the greater is the probability of agreement between the marks and,

consequently, the greater the probability that the presence of one ability means the presence of the other ability, or even that there is an ability common to both. Any coefficient of 0.50 or above is considered significant, provided the P.E. is not large.

The coefficients shown in the table are raw coefficients, not corrected for attenuation, and make the abilities seem less closely correlated than they really are. They certainly warrant the interpretation that the pupil who is good, mediocre, or poor *in a given subject is likely* to be good, mediocre, or poor to somewhat the same, but not equal, degree in all other subjects so far as his abilities are concerned. Such lack of agreement as does exist is due probably to a difference of interest and industry on the part of the pupil in different subjects at different times and not to a real difference in abilities in the various fields. Thus spelling ability correlates apparently less closely with ability in other subjects than abilities in these other subjects *correlate* among themselves. The upshot of the whole problem *concerning* the variation in the combination of traits, or the extent to which different amounts of mental traits accompany one another, may fairly be stated as follows:

> First, no negative correlations exist either among the abilities involved in school subjects or among the special mental functions measured by special tests. . . . Second, intellectual and scholastic abilities are for the most part closely correlated.[1]

This means that specialized abilities are not present.

f. Absence of Innate Special Abilities (Hazlitt). One of the best treatments of the entire subject of specialized ability *is* found in a book by Victoria Hazlitt.[2] A few quotations will serve to show the point of view presented. The first quotation refers to the question of whether or not special ability is innate:

> From the scientific point of view it is *impossible* to think of special abilities as innate in this way. As we have seen, all the special abilities that come to light in experimental inquiries are specific to the

---

[1] STARCH, DANIEL, "Educational Psychology," pp. 62–64, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

[2] HAZLITT, VICTORIA, "Ability, a Psychological Study," p. 53, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

material. It would be as absurd to say that a man is born with special abilities for these activities as that he is born with a special organ for taking snuff. This view which we have supported from the results of experimental psychology is adopted on quite other grounds by so eminent a biologist and anthropologist as Prof. Elliot Smith. He says:

"It would ill become me as a biologist to attempt to minimize the vast role played by heredity in determining the physical structure and the mental and moral aptitudes of every individual, and the variation in the average levels of attainment to which these hereditary qualities are subject in different races. But it is necessary to emphasize the fact that, so far as innate mental and moral characteristics are concerned, it is merely a vaguely defined and more or less generalized aptitude that is inherited, and not any special kind of ability or congenital propensity towards good or evil behavior . . . the direction in which these aptitudes find expression is determined by the individual's personal experience and by his environment."

Dr. Hazlitt believes that emotional drive is a prime factor in determining the direction of one's activities and that this drive is determined by the early experiences of each individual.

We have throughout assumed the factor of drive as essential to all forms of activity. In the present state of our knowledge it is quite impossible to show in detail how the degree of drive towards one activity differs from that towards another, although it is common knowledge that it does. It may be that the differentiation comes from the varying strength of instinctive drives in the individual. It cannot, however, be proved that there are innate differences in the strength of instinctive tendencies. Even if there are such differences, it is difficult to see how they determine such specific differences as appear in abilities. For instance, a man has the instinct of curiosity to a high degree; will he be an astronomer, a bacteriologist, or merely an eavesdropper? A more verifiable and certain cause of the differentiation in drive lies in the emotional and instinctive setting of the individual's early experiences in regard to any given subject matter. Let this setting be favourable and he will tend to pursue his activities in relation to the particular subject matter; let it be unfavourable and the field will become a limbo of impenetrable gloom through which he avoids making any unnecessary journeys. Throughout life affective experiences tell on the activities and the abilities of the individual, but there can be no doubt that it is the early ones that are the most potent in creating the illusion of innate special abilities.[3]

---

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 56, 57.

She takes up for special consideration musical and artistic geniuses such as Chopin, Handel, Mozart, Michelangelo, Corot, and Hogarth, showing in each case the presence of several abilities and significant childhood experiences. She concludes as follows:

> It seems fair to claim that the details that are available favour the view that genius in art does not rest on the inheritance of a special ability, but on the possession of general capacity in proportion to the greatness of the art, together with some determining experiences in early childhood.[4]

In the same way, men of exceptional prominence in science and mathematics are considered. This leads up to the conclusion, quoted from Dr. Johnson in the "Life of Cowley," "The true genius is a man of large general powers, accidentally determined to some particular direction."

Dr. Hazlitt sums up some important conclusions as follows:

> The view of ability that has been suggested may be summarized in relation to the version of the Parable of the Talents, in which one man received five talents, another two talents, and the third one talent. The number of talents which each man is originally given, corresponds in our theory to his degree of intelligence, *i.e.*, the degree to which his experiences are confluent. As in the parable, so in the case of mental gifts, all are not equally endowed. The original endowment may be used in a number of ways. However it is used, it will lead to the development of special abilities. The drive to use it in one way or another comes from the person's emotional and instinctive nature in relation to the exigencies of the environment. The man who hid his talents in the earth suffered from fear and resentment, Dr. Burt's depressing emotions. In some cases he suffers from a lack of any attractive venture in which to invest it, in others, from a mere lack of the invigorating emotions. The man who has many talents (*i.e.*, good general capacity) seems almost sure to invest them, even if nothing better presents itself than the mere manipulation of numbers. While the facts seem to show that a man with good general capacity may, in unfavourable circumstances, develop only one narrow line of interest, the chances are in favour of his interests being broad.[5]

4 *Ibid.*, p. 65.
5 *Ibid.*, p. 74.

This view, so ably presented by Dr. Hazlitt, clearly points to the general nature of innate abilities; when special abilities do manifest themselves, they are due to early experiences and training.

g. Evidence for Special Abilities (Hollingworth). In at least partial opposition to this point of view is the discussion by Dr. Leta S. Hollingworth.[6] She takes the position that specialized talent does exist in certain lines, notably music, drawing, and possibly certain forms of mechanical ability. A few quotations will serve to present this point of view.

(1) *Music*

Within the range of intellect which is sufficient for understanding and executing the directions for the tests, musical sensitivity shows no reliable correlation with general intelligence. Intellectually gifted children are distributed just as unselected children are in sensitivity to pitch, intensity, consonance, and rhythm, and in tonal memory.

Musical sensitivity is inborn and probably cannot be increased in any respect by training. If the various elements are not present in amount and combination constituting gift for music, no course of training will supply the lack. This is not to say that ultimate achievement, for those who are gifted, does not depend upon training. Achievement arises from trained capacity.[7]

(2) *Drawing*

Various investigators, notably Ayer and Manuel, have shown that ability to represent objects by drawing is little, if at all, related to general intelligence. Children who test in the highest percentile for intellect may or may not excel in draughtsmanship. A very stupid child may surpass a very bright child in this kind of performance. It is possible for a child gifted in drawing to surpass an intellectually gifted child in this respect, even if the former is far below average in I.Q.

In certain kinds of drawing, however, general intelligence is a factor. Success in these can be attained only by persons who are so fortunate as to combine a high degree of intelligence with a high degree of special talent. Analytical drawing, symbolic drawing, and

---

[6] Hollingworth, Leta S., "Gifted Children: Their Nature and Nurture," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 204, 207.

caricature call for such a combination. We find, therefore, that ability in these branches of drawing is correlated with I.Q. though not closely, because there are so many of the highly intelligent who lack the special gift for drawing.[8]

(3) *Mechanical Ability.* The case for special abilities in mechanical lines is not so strong as that for abilities in music and drawing. Dr. Hollingworth reviews investigations of Thorndike, Stenquist, and others and states that a correlation of 0.40 has been found between general intelligence and mechanical ability. This is positive and does indicate a relationship, but, so far as can now be determined, a low correlation. She says that we must await further experimentation before we can come to any definite conclusion regarding the relationship between "special ability" in mechanical lines and general ability or intelligence.

A possible explanation of specialized abilities is given by Dr. Hollingworth.

> The question as to why certain capacities should be thus dissociated from general intelligence has called forth interesting speculations. We do not know the answer to the question. The suggestion arises that these special talents may owe their lack of correlation with intelligence to their close involvement with special anatomical structures outside the cortex. Mental functions which depend relatively little upon equipment of eye, ear, or hand, but essentially upon the sensitivity and integrity of the cortical neurones, might be expected to show a close relationship among themselves, constituting what should properly be called intelligence. Those which depend very largely upon structures outside the brain might be expected to differ widely in quality from the former. Certainly, drawing, music, and mechanical ability, for example, involve, eye, ear, and muscle to a much greater extent than does abstract thinking. These, being functions of specialized anatomical structures as well as of the brain, might be expected to show specialization in performance.[9]

h. Conclusion. So far as guidance is concerned, we agree rather with Hazlitt than with Hollingworth. We rest upon the assumption that innate abilities are not usually specialized; that success in a certain group of related vocations or schools or

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 209, 210.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 203.

studies is determined more by interests early developed, by facilities, by openings, by opportunities in the particular locality or region where the individual is located. Our present knowledge, incomplete as it is, indicating as it does the possibility of innate specialized abilities in music and art, necessitates constant watchfulness to detect indications of special abilities in these lines even though they may not be accompanied by general abilities in other lines of activity. We should, however, remember that specialized abilities may have been developed by the time the children reach us. These should always be taken into account and utilized.

V. ABILITIES AND APTITUDES NOT DEPENDENT UPON RACE, COLOR, OR SEX

Repeated experiments and investigations have failed to show any significant differences in aptitudes or abilities that can be traced to race, color, or sex. Social customs, inhibitions, lack of opportunities, background, education, and many other factors do produce differences that are important but these factors are factors that society can and does change from one generation to another. The differences observed are not present in the germ plasm; they are due not to heredity but to social inheritance.

VI. NEED FOR ASSISTANCE IN MEETING CERTAIN CRISES

This assumption is so self-evident as to need no comment. No valid system of education can be based upon the idea that what the child wants is always best for him or that he *wants* everything that he *needs*. Education has certain goals or objectives; these objectives have been determined by a developing and developed society. Children are not prepared by nature for membership in society; their natural desires and impulses fit them only for a very low state of existence; these cannot be relied upon to point the way to adjustment to modern society. Our problem is to utilize the native impulses and desires of the child in leading him along a pathway, new and strange to him, built by the race in its upward development. The child has no innate powers that will enable him to select the best road. We must effectively build up in him the ability to choose his own way, but this must be done very gradually and with infinite care. At each stage of his development, he should show progress in his

ability to solve his own problems. Young people in high school and college should already be able to meet some crises intelligently. When they can, they should be allowed to do so. But modern society with its increasing complexity and the resulting interdependence of all its parts has created situations that are totally beyond the power of the average individual to meet without help.

VII. STRATEGIC POSITION OF THE SCHOOL IN GUIDANCE

This assumption is also self-evident. This is the primary reason for the establishment of the school—to guide and assist the child in his education and training. Because of its special and intimate knowledge of the pupil's abilities, because of its long and close contact with the pupil, because of its disinterested character, and also because of its opportunity, the public school is in a position to render peculiarly valuable guidance. It must accept this responsibility. Saying this is not saying that the school is efficiently organized to provide guidance in all its phases. Much remains to be done along this line before we can make any claim to efficiency. But upon the basic assumption of the possibility of help being given by the school there can be no difference of opinion.

VIII. GUIDANCE AS PROGRESSIVE SELF-DIRECTION, NOT PRESCRIPTION

1. *Basic for All Education.* This assumption is basic, not only for guidance but also for all education. It is an assumption that finds ready acceptance verbally, but that, in practice, is often violated. The meaning of the principle is that the purpose of guidance is to develop the ability of each individual to take care of himself, to stand on his own feet and not be dependent upon others. It is recognized that this is a gradual process and involves placing upon each individual only as much responsibility at any time as he can assume with a fair degree of probable success; that may mean very little for some persons. But the end is clear—not continued reliance upon external help, but more or less complete independence, dependent upon the ability of each individual to stand alone.

This assumption demands a certain type of guidance, a certain method. It does not mean determining for the individual

at each step what he should do or should not do, but rather helping him to secure the information and experience that will enable him to select his course, to choose for himself what he will do. It does not mean that we would tell the boy entering high school to take the college preparatory course, but that we should talk over with him what he plans to do after he gets through high school and help him to get a clear idea of what course he must take in order to do what he wants to do in life. If it is to become a physician or a lawyer or an engineer, his problem is solved; he must take a course in high school that will enable him to go to college. When this is clear, he makes his own choice; he needs no advice from his teacher.

2. *Negative Prescription.* Society will, of course, determine and maintain certain qualifications for definite types of occupations and exclude all who do not have these qualifications. This is done for the sake of safety, for the public good. For example, society bars anyone who is color-blind from becoming a locomotive engineer; it should do the same for drivers of automobiles. It prescribes certain qualifications for entering law, medicine, teaching, and engineering. Those who do not have the qualifications cannot enter these occupations. For these, guidance involves negative prescription. This field of negative prescription will doubtless be extended as society develops and as specialization becomes increasingly necessary. On the whole, however, the purpose of guidance is positive, not negative, and, like that of all education, aims to build up the ability to guide one's self.

REFERENCES

1. ALPENFELS, ETHEL J.: "Sense and Nonsense about Race," Friendship Press, New York, 1946. A brief statement of the evidence regarding race.

2. BENEDICT, RUTH, and GENE WELTFISH: "The Races of Mankind," Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 85, Public Affairs Committee, New York, 1946. Reviews the evidence regarding races.

3. HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON: "Guidance in the Secondary School," Chap. I, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. Although only brief reference is made to any basic assumptions, the point of view is excellent.

4. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J., and HILDA TABA: "Adolescent Character and Personality," John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949. Emphasizes the importance of the effect of social and economic environment on intelligence and personality.

5. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER: "Trends in Vocational Guidance," in "Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education," edited by EDWIN A. LEE,

pp. 289–291, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1928. A brief statement in which certain basic assumptions are discussed.

6. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION: "Intelligence, Its Nature and Nurture," Thirty-ninth Yearbook, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1940. The best up-to-date discussion of the problem of heredity and environment as related to intelligence.

7. UHL, WILLIS L.: "Principles of Secondary Education," Chap. III, Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1925. An essentially modern point of view regarding some of the basic assumptions of guidance.

8. WILLIAMS, ROGER J.: "The Human Frontier," Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1946. A stimulating discussion of metabolic patterns and their implications.

9. WILLIAMSON, E. G., editor: "Trends in Student Personnel Work," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949. A broad overview of past, present, and future goals is given.

PART II

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION IN GUIDANCE
AND PERSONNEL WORK

GENERAL METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

I. DISTINCTION BETWEEN KINDS OF INVESTIGATION WITH
RELATION TO GUIDANCE

At this point it is necessary for us to distinguish clearly between research as conducted by experts, and investigations undertaken by students under the direction of teachers. Each of these is essential to an effective guidance program.

1. *Research by Experts.* Research by experts aims to discover new truth; when discovered, this new truth is used in various ways: (1) to give new material for courses and curricula, (2) to form the basis for the organization of schools and colleges and for the improvement of methods of teaching, (3) to promote necessary legislation, especially that relating to school attendance and conditions of labor, (4) to give students trustworthy information on important topics where they are not able to secure it for themselves, (5) to furnish tools for the counselor. From one point of view this type of investigation forms the background for guidance; it is one of the necessary elements in the preparation of the guidance worker in order that he may guide properly. From this point of view investigation *itself* is not guidance but is a fundamental prerequisite for it.

2. *Student Investigations.* Investigations undertaken by students also aim to reveal truth, but this truth is not usually or necessarily new truth. The purpose is not primarily to *discover* new truth, but to train the individual so that he can get reliable facts when he needs them. It also aims to impress facts and their significance more firmly on the mind of the student. It is a teaching device—a method of guiding the student; it is, in essence, the laboratory method at its best.

3. *Both Methods Essential to Guidance.* From this discussion it is clear that the two kinds of investigation are in many respects quite different in method and in purpose. Both, how-

GENERAL METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

I. DISTINCTION BETWEEN KINDS OF INVESTIGATION WITH RELATION TO GUIDANCE

At this point it is necessary for us to distinguish clearly between research as conducted by experts, and investigations undertaken by students under the direction of teachers. Each of these is essential to an effective guidance program.

1. *Research by Experts.* Research by experts aims to discover new truth; when discovered, this new truth is used in various ways: (1) to give new material for courses and curricula, (2) to form the basis for the organization of schools and colleges and for the improvement of methods of teaching, (3) to promote necessary legislation, especially that relating to school attendance and conditions of labor, (4) to give students trustworthy information on important topics where they are not able to secure it for themselves, (5) to furnish tools for the counselor. From one point of view this type of investigation forms the background for guidance; it is one of the necessary elements in the preparation of the guidance worker in order that he may guide properly. From this point of view investigation *itself* is not guidance but is a fundamental prerequisite for it.

2. *Student Investigations.* Investigations undertaken by students also aim to reveal truth, but this truth is not usually or necessarily new truth. The purpose is not primarily to *discover* new truth, but to train the individual so that he can get reliable facts when he needs them. It also aims to impress facts and their significance more firmly on the mind of the student. It is a teaching device—a method of guiding the student; it is, in essence, the laboratory method at its best.

3. *Both Methods Essential to Guidance.* From this discussion it is clear that the two kinds of investigation are in many respects quite different in method and in purpose. Both, how-

"It is an extraordinary circumstance that so large a portion of our students come up to the spring of their senior year with little or no plan for the future, with no decision as to the field of work which they will enter and frequently with little or no knowledge of what opportunities are offered by the world of affairs to the college graduate. . . . As time goes on, the day arrives when they simply must have a job and so they jump at the first one which comes along, regardless of its intrinsic merits or defects, and equally regardless of the likelihood that they can succeed in it. . . .

"Two things at least require to be done, neither of which can be accomplished instantly, but upon which a beginning can certainly be made, granted interest in the problem and moderate financial means wherewith to bring it to pass.

"There is, in the first place, need for a carefully organized bureau where accurate current information could be obtained.

"The second great need is a personnel service which would help the student to determine with some exactness for himself what his real qualifications are and in what field of endeavor he can hope to be successful. . . .

"One can hardly visualize the University venturing at this stage to give a youth, on the basis of any psychological examination, definite positive advice to enter a given calling. But it is easy to see how, with judicious advisers working with a more or less common-sense technique, using well-recognized personnel rating systems and supported by such psychological methods as can be matured, a boy who desires it may be given help of really first-rate consequence in coming to a fuller understanding of his own powers and possibilities."

Extract from the 1924–1925 report of President James Rowland Angell, of Yale University, *The Yale Alumni Weekly*, 35:688, Mar. 12, 1926.

GENERAL METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

I. DISTINCTION BETWEEN KINDS OF INVESTIGATION WITH RELATION TO GUIDANCE

At this point it is necessary for us to distinguish clearly between research as conducted by experts, and investigations undertaken by students under the direction of teachers. Each of these is essential to an effective guidance program.

1. *Research by Experts.* Research by experts aims to discover new truth; when discovered, this new truth is used in various ways: (1) to give new material for courses and curricula, (2) to form the basis for the organization of schools and colleges and for the improvement of methods of teaching, (3) to promote necessary legislation, especially that relating to school attendance and conditions of labor, (4) to give students trustworthy information on important topics where they are not able to secure it for themselves, (5) to furnish tools for the counselor. From one point of view this type of investigation forms the background for guidance; it is one of the necessary elements in the preparation of the guidance worker in order that he may guide properly. From this point of view investigation *itself* is not guidance but is a fundamental prerequisite for it.

2. *Student Investigations.* Investigations undertaken by students also aim to reveal truth, but this truth is not usually or necessarily new truth. The purpose is not primarily to *discover* new truth, but to train the individual so that he can get reliable facts when he needs them. It also aims to impress facts and their significance more firmly on the mind of the student. It is a teaching device—a method of guiding the student; it is, in essence, the laboratory method at its best.

3. *Both Methods Essential to Guidance.* From this discussion it is clear that the two kinds of investigation are in many respects quite different in method and in purpose. Both, how-

ever, are essential to guidance. One is of no use without the other, for the student cannot be guided without the facts discovered by the expert and the facts themselves are worse than useless for guidance unless they are fitted into the needs of some student. Then, too, the difference is not so great as might be supposed. The two methods often overlap and both are frequently a part of the same investigation. When students are investigating, we attempt to have them use scientific methods —the same methods as those used by experts. Not only this, but many investigations are cooperative undertakings, where students and teachers are working together to discover some facts that are essential for guidance. The teacher needs to know the facts to enable him to guide the student; the student needs to know them to enable himself to be guided. Both need the same information although each uses it differently.

Again, when the expert or the teacher is trying to discover facts about the student, that is, when the student himself becomes the subject of investigation, research by the teacher is inseparably connected with the investigation by the student of himself. He is helped by the teacher to discover facts about himself and to draw conclusions about himself; this is distinctly a guidance process. The student himself cannot ordinarily be the subject of investigation without his own cooperation, and this cooperation becomes, or should become, a part of the process of guiding him.

It will thus be seen that, although some parts of the investigation necessary for guidance may not be a part of the actual process of guiding (investigation by the teacher is not guiding), it is impossible and unwise to try to make any sharp distinction between them. In the same way, it would be unwise to separate the discussion of the machinery by which guidance is administered from the discussion of guiding students. Guidance committees are not guidance, nor are records, nor research work; but all are so intimately connected that it would be unreasonable to try to separate them. Both make up guidance and both are necessary to it. If we should omit either, we would have no guidance at all in the true meaning of the word.

4. *Purpose of the Chapter.* The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the methods that are used by different members of the school staff who engage in scientific investigation of individuals,

school conditions, and occupations in order to obtain reliable facts. The second kind of investigation, that by high-school students, will be discussed in Chap. XIX; the combination of the two, when investigation becomes a part of the guidance process, will be touched upon in Chap. VI.

II. NEED FOR SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION IN GUIDANCE

1. *Basis of Intelligent Choice.* If the aims and purpose set forth in Chap. III are valid, certain corollaries become at once apparent. Intelligent choices cannot be made unless the individual has facts upon which to base his choices. This seems so self-evident as to need no emphasis, but men and women, as well as boys and girls, are continually making choices of the most vital importance to themselves and to society with no knowledge of the facts and often without caring to know the facts. People marry, they bear and raise children, they choose occupations, they vote for important officials and for or against laws that, on the surface, would seem to improve conditions, and they make these choices without the slightest regard for the facts that are in their possession, or that they could easily secure, and that would help them to make a wise choice. It is little wonder that many hasty marriages result in disaster, that children so often must go through life handicapped by the results of faulty nutrition, or half-blinded through improper care during an attack of measles; nor is it strange that they often go astray. We cannot wonder that the ward boss, the grafter, and the professional politician still flourish.

2. *Need for Research in Guidance.* The entire field of education as well as the field of guidance is peculiarly in need of scientific research. It is difficult to get real facts regarding different phases of the educational process. There are so many variable factors—children with varying abilities and with different social and economic backgrounds; teachers with different personalities, using different methods; varying demands on the school, and many other factors difficult if not impossible to control—all these, combined with the crudity of our present methods of measurement and the scarcity of well-trained research workers, make the task of research a very difficult one.

In addition to these very real obstacles, and probably partly as the result of them, there is the further difficulty that nearly

everyone, teacher as well as citizen, thinks that his experience qualifies him to make correct judgments regarding all matters of education. No matter how good a school may be, some group of citizens will always be found ready to criticize it, usually because it no longer uses the methods of a bygone generation, because it has been unable to supply the intelligence that heredity has denied, or because it has been unsuccessful in preparing the student to meet requirements which have been set up by colleges fearful of their standards and which have little or no significance in judging the ability to do college work.

Teachers are partly responsible for the general attitude assumed by the public. We have too often dealt in generalities and have been content to express our purposes and objectives in high-sounding phrases; we have refused to think of teaching as a science but have preferred to call it only an art; we have declared that the best, the spiritual, results of teaching are not measured by tests and scales and can never be so measured. Teachers are easily deceived regarding the result of their efforts. We frequently find what we want to find; the attitude of the real scientist is rare indeed.

These difficulties make the task of the educational charlatan and the guidance quack particularly easy. We are peculiarly susceptible to the alluring advertisement of anyone who claims to know a short cut to success, to be able to give us a key that will open up in a moment facts that can usually be found only after laborious effort and painstaking research. The only result of adopting these methods is disaster and disillusionment.

It is of the utmost importance that we develop a technique that will enable us to secure significant facts, that we develop the conviction that facts can be obtained only by careful, painstaking, time-consuming effort, and that we so train young people that they will want facts and then use these facts after they get them.

III. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH ATTITUDE

At this point it may be well to point out some dangers inherent in the extreme research attitude. The discussion seems to indicate that the proper order of procedure in guidance is (1) get all the facts, (2) guide. The danger of attempting to guide without important facts has properly been stressed, but

we should not think of the process of getting facts as always distinct from guidance, as we sometimes do. Another danger is even greater, that we wait until all the facts are in before we try to guide at all. In the first place, we can never get all the facts, even all the important ones; in the second place, the need for help will often be past, the decision made, before we get all the facts; in the third place, while we are assembling the facts, the individual changes and the elements in the problem may change. The procedure of the psychiatrist and the social worker described in Chap. X has many important implications for guidance. This procedure keeps consciously and continually in mind the adjustment of the individual. It is not concerned so much with getting the facts as with helping the individual to adjust himself; "guide as you go." Facts about previous experiences, family life, economic conditions, should help the counselor to understand more fully the problems of the counselee, but the very effort to get facts, the fact-seeking attitude of the counselor, may seriously interfere with the process of guidance. A sympathetic, intelligent counselor who knows very few facts about the counselee may by skillful questioning and suggestion guide his thinking in such a way as to lead to the solution of the problem. To be successful, such a procedure requires special abilities and skills not possessed by the ordinary teacher or by the ordinary counselor. In the hands of experienced, well-trained counselors, it is often very effective. This point of view does not minimize the importance of facts; we need all that we can get. It is dangerous to rush in and attempt to help an individual when we know nothing about him. The best counselor can be much more effective if he knows the basic facts about the individual. It merely stresses the truth that getting facts is not guidance. Guidance, especially in cases of severe maladjustment, is a therapeutic process and is concerned with the adjustment of the individual; it begins with the first contact with the individual and ends only when the adjustment has been made or when the individual no longer needs help.

REFERENCES

1. ABELSON, H. H.: "The Art of Educational Research: Its Problems and Procedures," World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1933. A good book for the beginner in research.

2. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION: *Review of Educational Research*, The Association, Washington, D.C. These monographs are full of helpful suggestions on methods of research. The following will be found especially helpful: Vol. 4, No. 1, February, 1934; Vol. 9, No. 5, December, 1939; Vol. 12, No. 5, December, 1942; Vol. 15, No. 5, December, 1945; and Vol. 18, No. 5, December, 1948.

3. GOOD, CARTER V., A. S. BARR, and DOUGLAS E. SCATES: "The Methodology of Educational Research," D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1936. One of the best standard references on methods of research.

4. KELLY, T. L.: "Scientific Method: Its Function in Research and in Education," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. An excellent treatment of the scientific method.

5. McCALL, W. A.: "How to Experiment in Education," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. A good treatment of methods of experimental research.

6. MONROE, WALTER S., editor: "Encyclopedia of Educational Research," rev. ed., The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950. A convenient compendium of research studies classified by subjects, with discussions of the nature and scope of research in each field.

7. STRANG, RUTH: Research on Techniques Used in the Study of Individuals, *Teachers College Record*, 37:100–110, November, 1935. Stresses the types of research suitable to a study of individuals.

8. TROW, E. C.: "Scientific Method in Education," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1925. Especially good on scientific method.

9. WHITNEY, F. L.: "Methods in Educational Research," D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1931. One of the standard references on educational research.

10. WILLIAMS, J. HAROLD: "Graphic Methods in Education," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924. Gives excellent suggestions on graphic methods of reporting research.

USE OF SCHOOL RECORDS IN STUDYING THE INDIVIDUAL

I. STUDYING THE INDIVIDUAL

1. *Need for Study of the Individual.* The most important study to be undertaken is the study of the individual. We need to know the facts about each student; these are of vital importance. Although we are continually in touch with students, it is, nevertheless, very difficult to secure reliable data about them. Knowledge of pupil needs and of the probable effect of the help planned are indispensable for effective guidance.

2. *Studying the Individual as a Part of the Guidance Process.* In Chap. V, it was stated that, when the individual himself is the subject of investigation, the process of investigation becomes a part of the method of guiding him. This is very important for two reasons. (1) We cannot secure certain facts about students without their cooperation. This cooperation can be secured only when the student feels the value of the facts to be obtained. In order to create in him a sense of the value of such accurate information about himself, we must try to help him secure it at the time when he needs it. By helping him to get the facts when he needs them, we enable him to use them in the solution of his problem; that is, he is guided. (2) Teachers, and especially investigators, are likely to think of themselves as individuals who are merely impersonal investigating agencies who must analyze the student, secure certain facts about him, and then pass these facts on to him in suitable doses at appropriate times. In some ways this is exactly what takes place, but it is by no means the whole truth. The pupil himself is an active agent in the entire guidance process. We must continually be on our guard against thinking of the process of guidance as *steering* rather than *guiding*. A very essential part of the guidance of the pupil is the very process of securing facts about him.

It should, however, again be emphasized that securing facts about individuals, while indispensable to guidance, is not guidance unless the individual is assisted in the selection of facts, in choosing methods of securing facts, or in interpreting them.

3. *Facts Important to Secure.* What facts about students are important for us to secure? Of course, any fact that can have any bearing upon choices now or later is important. Potentially, every fact is valuable, but we cannot hope to obtain them all. Completely adequate guidance can be given only when we have the most important facts about the individual. These include information not only concerning the various phases of his work at school but his family history, home conditions, general outside associations, his health, and his whole outlook upon life. To secure all of this information and to make sure that it is reliable, we need a body of experts of all kinds. This it is not now possible to obtain, both because such experts are rare and because we do not have available the money to secure them.

A few schools are fortunate enough to be able to command the services of a number of such experts, and we may confidently look forward to a time when most schools will be thus provided. It will be a slow process but, when the value of expert help is made clear, we shall find a way to secure it. At present, the majority of schools have only the regular teaching staff upon which to draw for assistance. We are thus placed in a peculiar position. We freely grant that we need all the facts that can be secured from a body of experts, but we realize that we cannot hope to have such assistance. In such a dilemma, what can we do? Is there nothing worth while that can be accomplished without expert help? In answering such a natural and vital question, let us consider the following: (1) any facts are better than no facts, (2) facts are better than opinions about facts, (3) facts are valuable only in proportion to our ability to use them.

Although it is true that half-truths are often misleading, we are constantly under the necessity of acting on the information we have. The trouble with most of us is that we act not upon whatever *facts* we have, but upon prejudice, upon heresay, upon superstition. The world would be far in advance of what it is today if we all acted only upon what *facts* we have. Let us, then, get whatever facts we can about a student, but let us be

sure that they are *facts* and not *opinions about facts*. Let us find the real cause of his leaving school, and not merely the reason he gives or the opinion of his teacher or even his mother. There are many useful facts that can easily be secured by the ordinary staff of the school, many of which are already a matter of record. The only labor is that of copying and assembling the facts recorded. Such have to do with school records for the entire school life of the pupil. These would include attendance records, causes of absence, failures, and scholastic grades of various kinds, including scores in intelligence tests and achievement tests; participation in various activities; honors, awards, offices held; subjects studied. There can usually be secured data regarding health and often records of growth in height and weight. Some data are always available about certain phases of home life and economic and social status, as well as racial characteristics. Occasional facts about other phases of the life of the pupil may be obtained, but great care must continually be exercised that facts be not mixed up with hearsay and opinion. Hearsay and opinion are often helpful, but only when they are recognized as such. They should never be substituted for facts.

It is often much easier to secure facts than it is to use them after they are obtained. On this account, there is a tendency to give much more attention to gathering data than to using the information collected. We must keep continually in mind that the only reason why we collect data is that we may *use* them.

To make guidance most intelligent and effective, we must, of course, perfect the methods of collecting and recording data. Material that cannot be used now will in many cases be invaluable in a few years when enough has been collected to be really significant. While in no way condemning the practice of collecting data that cannot be immediately used, we must nevertheless seriously consider whether we could not more efficiently distribute our time and energy by spending less time in collecting a wide range of facts and more time in using the facts secured and in the immediate applications of them to the pupils now needing help. The best course for us to follow is to (1) study carefully the local situation and resources, both of the community and of the school; (2) find, by a general study or survey, what facts can be secured; (3) determine what facts are the

most needed and what can be used; and (4) organize our program of fact finding and fact assembling with reference to the local needs and facilities. It is usually a good plan to have continually before us a fairly complete list of all important data so that we may not overlook some usable and important facts. A list such as that given on pages 229 and 231 in connection with the case-study method will be found helpful and also the data recorded on the excellent blanks given on pages 242 to 247.

4. *Methods of Securing Facts.* The way in which these facts may be secured will vary with the conditions of the school, but certain suggestions regarding sources of facts may be helpful. In general, we should try to make use of the regular agencies of the school insofar as they are adequate for our purpose. We shall often be compelled to establish new agencies for fact finding and to reorganize those that now exist, but it will be found easily possible to utilize most of the agencies already organized in the school.

II. SCHOOL RECORDS AS SOURCES OF FACTS

1. *Facts in School Records.* The first source for securing facts about pupils, and the one always available, is the school record. Principals and superintendents are gradually awakening to the realization of the importance of more complete records and we shall, in time, be able to include in them many important facts now absent. The kind and number of facts recorded vary greatly with different schools. The permanent record for public intermediate schools, given on page 137, is a good example of the usual record card.

Wrenn and Dugan make the following suggestions for records: [1]

Permanent Records

1. Pupil's name, birth date, sex, parent's name, occupation, and address, etc.
2. School grades
3. Test results in raw scores, percentile rank, and identifying norms
4. Attendance record

[1] WRENN, C. GILBERT, and WILLIS E. DUGAN, "Guidance Procedures in High School," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950. (*Used by special permission of the authors.*)

5. Picture
6. School activity participation and leadership record
7. Health and physical status rating
8. Personality rating summary
9. Rank in class and date of graduation or leaving
10. Placement after graduation

Counseling Record Folder

1. Registration record or projected program of studies
2. Student questionnaire (personal history data)
3. Counselor's interview notes
4. Personal assets and limitations
5. Test record profile sheet
6. Family and home background and relationships
7. Non-academic activities
8. Work-experience
9. Anecdotes and illustrations of work
10. Health data summary
11. Pertinent correspondence
12. Autobiography
13. Vocational themes
14. Employers' appraisals
15. Absence excuses from home

Confidential Data

Confidential data about students which in the judgment of the counselor should not be kept routinely in the cumulative folder for use by all staff members should be filed in a separate confidential file. Some interview notes, special test results, confidential information about home and family problems, and certain other clinical data may have meaning only to the counselor and if confidentially secured should be shared by the counselor only where in his judgment the best interests of the student are served.

The minimum essentials of the individual inventory are generally regarded as including the following: (1) family and cultural background; (2) physical and medical history; (3) marks in school subjects; (4) extracurricular activities; (5) mental test scores; (6) achievement test scores; (7) interests; (8) aptitudes; (9) ratings of behavior and personality traits; (10) special talents; and (11) anecdotal records.

School records usually contain information on nearly all of the following points: (1) place and date of birth; (2) sex;

most needed and what can be used; and (4) organize our program of fact finding and fact assembling with reference to the local needs and facilities. It is usually a good plan to have continually before us a fairly complete list of all important data so that we may not overlook some usable and important facts. A list such as that given on pages 229 and 231 in connection with the case-study method will be found helpful and also the data recorded on the excellent blanks given on pages 242 to 247.

4. *Methods of Securing Facts.* The way in which these facts may be secured will vary with the conditions of the school, but certain suggestions regarding sources of facts may be helpful. In general, we should try to make use of the regular agencies of the school insofar as they are adequate for our purpose. We shall often be compelled to establish new agencies for fact finding and to reorganize those that now exist, but it will be found easily possible to utilize most of the agencies already organized in the school.

II. School Records as Sources of Facts

1. *Facts in School Records.* The first source for securing facts about pupils, and the one always available, is the school record. Principals and superintendents are gradually awakening to the realization of the importance of more complete records and we shall, in time, be able to include in them many important facts now absent. The kind and number of facts recorded vary greatly with different schools. The permanent record for public intermediate schools, given on page 137, is a good example of the usual record card.

Wrenn and Dugan make the following suggestions for records: [1]

Permanent Records

1. Pupil's name, birth date, sex, parent's name, occupation, and address, etc.
2. School grades
3. Test results in raw scores, percentile rank, and identifying norms
4. Attendance record

[1] Wrenn, C. Gilbert, and Willis E. Dugan, "Guidance Procedures in High School," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950. (*Used by special permission of the authors.*)

| PUPIL'S PERMANENT RECORD | | | PUBLIC INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS | |

Name..
     (Last name)   (Middle name)   (First name)

Birthplace..Date of Birth......................
                                 (yr.)   (mo.)   (day)

- Address 1.................... 2.................... 3....................

Parent or Guardian....................Address................Tel........

Occupation....................Bus. Address................Tel........

Birthplace of Father....................

Prepared for Intermediate School at....................

Date Entered....................Grade....................Class....................

Other Intermediate School Attended................How long?.........When?.........

Date left....................Reason....................

Date Re-entered................Grade....................Class....................

MENTAL TEST	SCORE	C. A.	M. A.	DATE

SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
English Composition		English Composition		English	
Spelling		Spelling		Writing and Spelling	
Social Science		Social Science		Social Science	
Mathematics		Mathematics		Mathematics	
Jr. Bus. Tr.		Jr. Bus. Tr.		Com. Arithmetic	
Boys' Ind. Arts		Boys' Ind. Arts		Boys' Ind. Arts	
Mech. Drawing		Mech. Drawing		Mech. Drawing	
Wood Work		Wood Work		Wood Work	
Sheet Met. & El.		Sheet Met. & El.		Sheet Met. & El.	
Printing		Printing		Printing	
Home Economics		Home Economics		Home Economics	
Sewing		Sewing		Clothing	
Cooking		Cooking		Foods	
El. Art		El. Science		Gen. Biology	
Reading-Literature		Reading-Literature		Art	
Music		Music		Music	
Orchestra		Orchestra		Orchestra	
Physical Education		Physical Education		Physical Education	
Hygiene		Hygiene		Hygiene	
Handwriting		Handwriting		Chorus	
		Latin		Oral Expression	
		French		Latin	
				French	

2. *Reliability of Data.* Every effort should be made to make
the records as reliable as possible. Errors are likely to creep in
unless great care is exercised at every point; some of these will
not be significant, but some will be very important. Place and
date of birth should always be verified, when possible, by com-
parison with actual birth certificates. The record should be *date*

(3) name of father; (4) father living or dead; (5) mother living or dead; (6) address; (7) nationality of father; (8) nationality of mother; (9) occupation of father; (10) number of days absent; (11) number of times tardy; (12) school progress, including promotions and nonpromotions, grade in school, teachers' marks in various subjects; (13) date and cause of leaving school. These facts are available to every counselor in any school and form a splendid basis for work even when they are all that can be obtained. Inadequate as they are, they will often, when taken as a whole, prove to be the means of solving many problems of maladjustment in school. The chief danger is that a single fact, or a group of facts, may be taken out of its setting and used as a basis for decisions and advice that have far-reaching effects upon both pupil and school.

Mary was failing in three of her studies in high school. Her teachers reported her as lacking in interest and application; she did not pay attention in class and in general seemed to care little about her work or her teachers. Her teachers recommended that she be advised to withdraw from school. One of the teachers, being especially interested in her, looked up her complete school record and found that in the grades Mary had made an excellent record and was, in fact, very close to the top of the class. She was of Italian parentage and her mother was not living. She had been repeatedly tardy and not infrequently absent. These facts, when taken into consideration, pointed to a possible cause of her failures and resulted in an investigation into the home conditions. This investigation revealed the following facts: (1) her father had no sympathy with her desire to go to high school but wanted her to stay at home and work; (2) she was the eldest of a family of six and had to take care of her brothers and sisters, cooking and sewing and caring for the other household duties before school and after school, on Saturdays and Sundays. She had no time at home for study and was so tired when she came to school that it was physically impossible for her to do good work. These facts threw an entirely different light upon Mary's failures and immediately pointed to a possible method of remedying the difficulty. They indicated, as well, the need for a consideration of *all* the facts in the case, not only those on the school records, but others that could be found.

PUPIL'S PERMANENT RECORD   **PUBLIC INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS**

Name...
     (Last name)   (Middle name)   (First name)

Birthplace.. Date of Birth...
                                                              (yr.)   (mo.)   (day)

-    Address 1........................... 2........................... 3...........................

Parent or Guardian.................................Address............................Tel....................

Occupation..Bus. Address....................Tel...................

Birthplace of Father...

Prepared for Intermediate School at...

Date Entered...................................Grade...................Class...................

Other Intermediate School Attended...............How long?...............When?...............

Date left.......................Reason...

Date Re-entered...................Grade...................................Class...................

MENTAL TEST	SCORE	C. A.	M. A.	DATE
....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....	....

SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
English Composition..	.....	English Composition..	.....	English....................	.....
Spelling........................	.....	Spelling........................	.....	Writing and Spelling	.....
Social Science............	.....	Social Science............	.....	Social Science............	.....
Mathematics..............	.....	Mathematics..............	.....	Mathematics..............	.....
Jr. Bus. Tr..................	.....	Jr. Bus. Tr..................	.....	Com. Arithmetic........	.....
Boys' Ind. Arts.........	.....	Boys' Ind. Arts.........	.....	Boys' Ind. Arts.........	.....
Mech. Drawing........	.....	Mech. Drawing........	.....	Mech. Drawing........	.....
Wood Work..........	.....	Wood Work..........	.....	Wood Work..........	.....
Sheet Met. & El......	.....	Sheet Met. & El......	.....	Sheet Met. & El......	.....
Printing................	.....	Printing................	.....	Printing................	.....
Home Economics........	.....	Home Economics........	.....	Home Economics........	.....
Sewing..................	.....	Sewing..................	.....	Clothing................	.....
Cooking................	.....	Cooking................	.....	Foods....................	.....
El. Art......................	.....	El. Science................	.....	Gen. Biology............	.....
Reading-Literature......	.....	Reading-Literature......	.....	Art..........................	.....
Music..........................	.....	Music..........................	.....	Music........................	.....
Orchestra....................	.....	Orchestra....................	.....	Orchestra..................	.....
Physical Education......	.....	Physical Education......	.....	Physical Education......	.....
Hygiene......................	.....	Hygiene......................	.....	Hygiene....................	.....
Handwriting................	.....	Handwriting................	.....	Chorus......................	.....
		Latin..........................	.....	Oral Expression........	.....
		French........................	.....	Latin........................	.....
				French......................	.....

2. *Reliability of Data.* Every effort should be made to make
the records as reliable as possible. Errors are likely to creep in
unless great care is exercised at every point; some of these will
not be significant, but some will be very important. Place and
date of birth should always be verified, when possible, by com-
parison with actual birth certificates. The record should be *date*

of birth, not *age nearest birthday*. All sorts of errors creep in when recording age nearest birthday. It is just as easy to get the actual date of birth, and it is far more reliable. Care should be taken to verify the data regarding father or mother living or dead. Not infrequently the father is reported as dead when he has deserted his family. One of the most unsatisfactory records is that of nationality of parents. Merely to record nationality is to give little help. Strictly speaking, "nationality" means the nation or country to which one belongs. Hence any foreign-born man or woman who is a naturalized citizen is an American, or, more accurately, belongs to the United States. A Negro is also an American. We should thus have listed under "Americans" foreign-born Italians, Greeks, Scandinavians, and Negroes, as well as native-born men of Italian stock and Americans who trace their ancestry back to the Mayflower. Such facts are entirely useless. Nationality is in itself not very significant; after all, what we are after is ethnic origins and the length of time children have come under American influences. In order to be helpful, we should know where parents and grandparents were born, to what racial or ethnic stock they belonged, and how long they have resided in the United States. These facts are not difficult to obtain and are, in the main, quite reliable. The errors that are likely to creep in are not such as materially to change the picture.

Another very unsatisfactory item is that of the occupation of the father. No satisfactory classification of occupations has yet been made. For our purposes, we wish to know *what kind* of work the father does, whether skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled, whether a trade or a profession. This will tell us something about the economic and social background of the home. Merely to record that the father is a *manager* or *proprietor* tells us nothing. He may own a small barbershop, or he may own a large industrial plant. He may be listed as an electrician when he is actually engaged in unskilled labor. Great care should be taken to find, as nearly as possible, just what kind of work the father is engaged in.

The school record of days absent is usually correct, as is that of times tardy. School progress through the grades is also reliable, although great care should be taken that such records be preserved and made accessible.

Teachers' marks are ordinarily recorded accurately and have real value. The danger lies in the use to be made of them and in the kind of reliability that is attached to them. Just what sort of facts are teachers' marks, what do they represent, and how can they be used?

Many studies have shown that teachers' marks are not reliable data regarding the ability of students, nor even regarding their actual achievement in schoolwork. Marks given to students in history are supposed to represent achievement in history. As a matter of fact, they represent not only the teacher's estimate of achievement in history, but native ability, effort, interest, attitude (school virtues), neatness, English, and many other things. No two teachers agree upon how much of these other qualities or characteristics enter into the mark given. As usually recorded, marks cannot be taken as completely reliable measures of achievement or of ability. They are, however, valuable when considered as series of estimates by trained observers of qualities and characteristics of students. Chief among these qualities and characteristics is the achievement of students in the various subjects studied. As estimates by teachers, they are facts; as definite and accurate measures of anything, they are not facts. They are, of course, accurate measures of the pupil's success in school, for success in school is dependent upon the estimates of teachers. If the teacher marks him "F," he has failed, regardless of whether the teacher's mark is accurate, and if his mark is "A," he has attained a high degree of school success. Taken as a whole, through a series of years, the marks recorded of a student by a group of teachers may be considered to make up a picture of the student's achievement and his ability that is very reliable. This record should, of course, be supplemented by the results of intelligence tests and of achievement tests, as we shall later describe, but even without these helps, teachers' marks as estimates have great reliability, in general.

There are many ways by which these estimates may be made more reliable than they are. Some of these are (1) agreement by teachers on what elements should be considered in making up the mark, (2) comparison of marks with objective achievement tests and intelligence tests, (3) comparison of the total distribution of marks in a given class with the normal curve of distribution to see whether there is a marked divergence from

the normal curve. This comparison is made much more effective and the meaning of the mark made clearer if a description of each mark is given, such as

A, *excellent. Ordinarily only from 3 to 7 per cent of a class attain this mark. Shows unusual ability. Completed all the work assigned very satisfactorily and shows initiative and originality.* C, *average. Ordinarily from 40 to 60 per cent of a class attain this mark. Shows average ability. Completed the work assigned fairly satisfactorily. Shows little initiative or originality.*

The other marks are described in a similar manner. Such descriptions not only help the teacher to make the mark more accurate, but also serve to interpret the mark to pupil and to parents. (4) Provision for a distinct or separate method of recording character traits, such as persistence, interest, reliability, and effort, and thus reserving the mark in different subjects for achievement in those subjects as nearly as this can be determined.

Probably one of the least satisfactory of the items usually recorded is that regarding leaving school. The only thing we really know in most cases is that the pupil left school at a certain date. If he died, we usually know that. Schools often know little about why he left school or what has happened to him after he left. He may have left to go to another school, but the record usually does not show this fact. It is extremely difficult to follow up pupils after they have left and to keep in touch with them. This is being attempted in various school systems, but it requires so much machinery and involves so much expense that most schools have not been able to do much along this line.

Although the causes for leaving school are fairly definitely given and recorded in most cases, it is questionable whether they are reliable as facts. To decide this question, we must know how they are secured. In most cases, the statement of the student of the cause of his leaving is taken as a fact. In other cases, the parent's statement is taken. Numerous investigations have shown that neither of these is a reliable source of information as to causes of elimination. Carback [2] made a study of the reasons for leaving given by pupils and by the parents of the same pupils. He found there was little substantial agreement

[2] CARBACK, CLARENCE, an unpublished study.

between the reasons given by pupils and those given by parents, and in many cases neither reason given was the correct one as indicated by investigation into the actual causes.

In general, the two most frequent reasons given for leaving school are economic necessity and dissatisfaction with school, including school failures. Economic necessity has frequently been given as causing as high as 50 or 60 per cent of school leaving. Careful studies and analyses of these cases have shown that economic necessity included several radically different factors. Among these are clearly distinguished: (1) desire to go to work, to earn a living, to get money for better clothes; (2) purchase by parent or pupil of automobile or clothing on the installment plan, hence necessity for earning money to pay the installments; (3) feeling on the part of the father that elementary schooling is all that is necessary and that the time between the ages of fourteen or sixteen and twenty-one belongs to the parents: the money earned by the boy during this time is a legitimate part of the income of the family; (4) mother's death or prolonged illness; the oldest girl must be at home to look after the home, even though the father can afford to hire the work done. Obviously, these are by no means to be counted under economic necessity; they are more or less economic causes but not economic necessity. It is now considered that real economic necessity accounts for not more than 25 per cent of school leaving. This is a real cause but by no means as important as usually believed. It is at once seen that dissatisfaction with or dislike of school must be considered in connection with economic reasons. In the last analysis, whether a boy leaves school or not is determined by the resultant of two forces: (1) the pull of the school and (2) the pull of out-of-school life, chief of which is gainful employment. If the pull of the school is greater than the pull of out-of-school life, he will stay in school; if out-of-school life pulls harder, he will drop out of school. Anything that weakens the hold of the school—as failure, difficulty with teacher, dissatisfaction with work offered or the methods employed—by so much increases the relative pull of out-of-school life and finally will cause school leaving. Anything that increases the pull of the school—as school success, pleasure in school, interest in work, companionship of others, helpfulness of teachers—will relatively weaken the pull of out-of-school life and cause the pupil to stay

in school. We attempt to increase the pull of the school in several ways: (1) by strict enforcement of the attendance laws; (2) by creating public sentiment in favor of school attendance; (3) by enlarging the offering of the school so that it will meet the needs of many people; (4) by providing good teachers, ample equipment, and free textbooks; (5) by making school attractive. We try to decrease the pull of out-of-school life by the enactment of child-labor laws and the development of public sentiment against the employment of young people under sixteen. We thus make it difficult for a boy or girl under sixteen to get a worth-while job.

In general, the school itself is found to be a large factor in school leaving, how large is not definitely determined, but probably considerably larger than is economic necessity. Under this head are included (1) school failure, (2) dislike of teacher, (3) disciplinary troubles, (4) feeling of worthlessness of school, (5) unattractiveness of school and school life, (6) narrowness of school offerings.

It is seen that the causes for leaving school are very many and extremely complicated. Great care should be taken to get at the real facts. In many cases, the only means of finding the real causes is to make a careful study and analysis of the home, of the occupation of the father and his income, of the general home conditions and the attitude of parents toward the school and of the adjustment of the pupil to the school. Time will often reveal the fact that leaving school was due to a complexity of causes no one of which was sufficient in itself to produce the result.

It is now common practice for schools to include in the record of each pupil estimates of personality traits and descriptions of types of behavior. These will be described more fully in Chaps. VIII and IX. There is still considerable difference of opinion regarding the desirability of this practice. The objections to the inclusion of such estimates or descriptions are partly because of their supposed unreliability and partly because of the danger that statements indicating unsatisfactory behavior or personality traits that are considered to be bad may condemn the pupil in the eyes of other teachers and thus interfere with efforts that he himself may make to overcome these tendencies. Without question such evil effects are possible. On the other hand, growth in

desirable behavior is the chief object of education, and descriptions of behavior from time to time are the best means of judging this growth. The danger in this practice lies both in the inaccuracy of the descriptions or the estimates and in the way in which they are used. We do not yet have any very satisfactory method of measuring or estimating personality traits, but each year shows a decided improvement over methods previously used. The anecdotal records, now used in many schools, are also improving in effectiveness. Great care should be used to make these accurately describe *what actually happened* and not what the teacher imagined, because of some previous prejudice for or against the pupil.

In general, then, school records are valuable sources of data and should be utilized fully in securing data concerning students. Every effort should be made to see that the data recorded are reliable and that facts that are really important are included. The improvement of school records is, in fact, one of our most imperative needs and is receiving the careful attention of our most progressive schoolmen.

REFERENCES

1. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, STAFF OF DIVISION ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHER PERSONNEL: "Helping Teachers Understand Children," The Council, Washington, D.C., 1949. Describes anecdotal records.

2. BAILEY, E. W., A. D. LAYTON, and E. L. BISHOP: "Studying Children in School," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939. Contains very useful suggestions regarding desirable items for school records.

3. BIXLER, H. H.: Recording and Reporting, *Review of Educational Research*, 6:174–176, 248, 249, 1936. A practical reference for lists of studies of records and reports.

4. DAVIS, FRANK G., and PEARL S. NORRIS: "Guidance Handbook for Teachers," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Contains helpful suggestions on records and their use.

5. ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E., editor: "A Basic Text for Guidance Workers," Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947. Gives types of records.

6. GADDIS, E. A.: System of Keeping Cumulative Records, *Nations' Schools*, 44:26, July, 1949. Useful suggestions are given.

7. LEFEVER, D. WELTY, ARCHIE M. TURRELL, and HENRY I. WEITZEL: "Principles and Techniques of Guidance," Chaps. X and XI, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1941. An excellent treatment of sources of information and types of records.

8. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF DEANS OF WOMEN: Cumulative Records: How They Got That Way, *Journal of the National Association of Deans*

of Women, 13:31–38, October, 1949. Raises stimulating questions regarding the use and value of records.

9. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, COMMITTEE ON GUIDANCE: Guidance in Secondary Schools, *Bulletin* 19:21–46, January, 1928. A brief description of guidance records.

10. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: School Records and Reports, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 5, No. 5, 1927. An unusually complete description of different types of records and reports with bibliography of useful references.

11. RUCH, GILES M., and DAVID SEGEL: Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance, *U.S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No.* 202, Washington, D.C., 1939. A helpful discussion of minimum essentials in records.

12. STRANG, RUTH: "Every Teacher's Records," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936. A very practical treatment of usable records.

13. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.: "How to Use Cumulative Records," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1945. A very practical discussion of the use of records.

14. SEGEL, DAVID, Chairman: Handbook of Cumulative Records, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1944, No. 5. A collection of types of cumulative records.

15. VAN DYKE, H. Q.: The Cumulative Case Study Record and Guidance, *National Education Association, Department of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin* 22:49–52, November, 1938. A brief but helpful discussion of the case study record.

16. WRENN, C. GILBERT, and WILLIS E. DUGAN: "Guidance Procedures in High School," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950. Discusses the forms, uses, and values of records.

17. YEAGER, WILLIAM A.: "Administration and the Pupil," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Part VI is especially helpful.

TRYOUT AND EXPLORATORY ACTIVITIES AS
METHODS OF INVESTIGATING THE INDIVIDUAL

It is undeniably true that everything that an individual does reveals something about him. A reorganization of the school may materially assist in this revealing process by providing an environment that is favorable to the development of certain traits or to the recognition of their existence. In this chapter we shall describe some methods and devices organized more definitely and specifically for this purpose.

I. MEANING AND FUNCTION OF TRYOUT AND EXPLORATORY ACTIVITIES

1. *Complexity of Function of Tryout and Exploratory Activities.* It has been pointed out again and again that there can be no hard and fast distinction between the various phases of guidance. Neither can the methods of investigating the individual be clearly distinguished from the methods of guiding him; each is inseparably bound up with the other. This is especially true of those activities we designate as tryout and exploratory. These activities perform three chief functions: (1) securing facts about the individual, (2) securing facts about courses and schools and about occupations, (3) guiding the individual. These functions are, however, not distinct; they are parts of the same process. This may be shown by taking any activity that is classified as exploratory.

The premodern language course listed among those used in Okmulgee (pages 151–152) shows these three functions very clearly: (1) It reveals to the teacher and to the individual the presence or absence of the capacities, aptitudes, and interests required in the activities comprised under the study. (2) It enables the student to know by actual experience something about what he would have to do if he went on to a study of French, German, or Spanish and also some of the things he

145

would have to do if he wanted to go on to college or university. (3) By the very process of exploration and tryout it furnishes a good basis for intelligent choice by the individual himself, and this becomes a part of the guidance process. All general courses are of the same nature and show the same functions. They also afford the opportunity to develop interests in new fields. The general shop, described on page 380, also shows some of the same functions. (1) It reveals to the student and to his teacher capacities, aptitudes, and interests and does this in a situation that is much more nearly like actual shop conditions than is true in the usual industrial-arts courses. (2) Whenever it is organized like an industrial shop, it helps the boy to know from actual experience what he would have to do if he went into that line of work. (3) It helps him to choose for himself what he will do in life.

2. *Exploratory Nature of All Schoolwork.* Exploratory and tryout activities are as broad as the entire program of the school. Each activity in class and out, the formal studies and the clubs, are agencies for exploration and tryout.

The adolescent explorer passes through consecutive stages on his journey of exploration during his junior-high-school years. First, he adjusts himself to his new environment that he may learn how most effectively to benefit by his exploratory experiences; second, he enters upon his exploratory activities; third, he makes a tentative selection of an educational placement which makes a particular appeal to his individual interests; fourth, after the testing of his choice, he undertakes the initial stage of his differentiation into a curriculum group. When the foregoing steps have been taken, he is ready for specialized training of his choice in the senior high school.[1]

3. *Variation in Names of Exploratory Courses.* Although the entire program of the school is exploratory in nature, there are courses and activities that are organized especially with this purpose in view. It is impossible at present to give to these various courses and activities a name that is universally accepted. Courses now organized with more or less of the tryout idea are grouped under the following titles: survey, introductory, gen-

---

[1] NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, COMMITTEE ON GUIDANCE, *Guidance in Secondary Schools, Bulletin* 19, p. 32, January, 1928.

eral, acquaintance, self-discovery, preview, threshold, vestibule, tryout, finding, sampling, prevocational, exploratory, orientation. They are given in all types of school from junior high school to college and university. It will at once be seen that these vary in their relative emphases upon various objectives; some emphasize the preview of a later course or group of courses, others emphasize the exploring phase, while some have the tryout idea uppermost. Nor is it entirely clear what the technical difference is between "tryout" and "exploration." Insofar as any difference is recognized, exploratory courses aim to give the student an opportunity to explore, to get acquainted with new fields of study. Tryout is also used with the same idea in mind but usually the term emphasizes trying out the individual or giving him an opportunity to try himself out. There can be no clear distinction between these two functions, nor would it be wise to organize courses specifically for one or the other function. The two functions are inseparably bound together and interact one upon the other. Whenever a student studies a new course, he explores a new field and gets some idea of what lies ahead; he also tries himself out and reveals to himself and to his teacher something about his abilities, interests, likes, and dislikes. The self-revelation shows him his abilities and interests, and, at the same time, the exploration he has made shows him what present and future courses are like. The two together are essential to a proper selection of courses, activities, and vocations.

4. *Plan of Discussion.* The diversity of function in these courses makes it extremely difficult to discuss them under the divisions of this book as organized.

Even at the risk of obscuring the essential unity of the functions, we shall attempt to divide the discussion of the various phases of exploration and tryout activities and take up separately the three functions of (1) getting facts about individuals, (2) getting facts about courses, schools, and occupations, and (3) guiding individuals. Under each of these divisions we shall discuss in more detail those activities that seem to emphasize a particular function.

In this chapter and in the next four chapters we are concerned mainly with methods of securing and recording facts about individuals. The second function, securing facts about courses and schools and occupations, will be discussed in Chaps. XII to XIV.

The third function, guiding students, will be considered in Chaps. XV to XXIV.

In this discussion, we may distinguish three parts of our curricular organization that are especially useful for tryout and exploration: (1) the "regular" school subjects, especially the core subjects; (2) short unit courses; and (3) student activities.

II. REGULAR OR GENERAL SUBJECTS

1. *Exploratory Value of All Subjects.* It is clear that, whatever our attitude may be regarding the value of special exploratory courses, we must rely very largely upon the general subjects for the discovery and revelation of the abilities and characteristics of individuals. Students spend most of their time and energy in activities connected with the regular curriculum. Construct a complete program of studies according to generally accepted principles and not much of the time of any student will be left for other activities. As far as the junior high school is concerned, this statement applies to the core subjects—those required of all. If this is true, what are the traits and abilities that we may expect to be revealed through the general subjects?

Here we would list, first, those so-called "general" traits and characteristics described more fully in Chap. IX. Some of these are honesty, persistence, initiative, self-control, and patience. Every day provides opportunities for revealing, as well as developing, such traits. Constant repetition of situations such as occur in the ordinary classroom makes it easily possible for the teacher to distinguish many of these characteristics. General mental ability, the ability to think in abstract terms, quickness of reaction—physical and mental—are also clearly shown. There is abundant opportunity for the discovery of special abilities and interests in fields represented by the various subjects: writing, debating, speaking, mathematics, history, Latin, biology, chemistry, physics, and many others. Literature and history are especially fruitful in providing the means by which interests and abilities may be revealed, not only in those special fields but in practically any other line of human endeavor. All these subjects, then, are clearly "tryout" in their function.

2. *Limitations of Present Organization.* It should be clearly recognized, however, that decided limitations are placed on the tryout function of these regular courses by the present organiza-

tion of the materials in them and by the general methods of instruction used. The tryout and exploratory functions should be more clearly and consciously recognized in the selection and organization of materials in all subjects than they are now. With the usual organization of courses and materials, it is practically impossible to provide opportunity for tryout in all desirable lines of activity. In the ninth grade, for example, all students must take English, mathematics, social studies, and physical training. In many schools this is, in reality, English, algebra, history, and gymnasium work. For the other major subjects, the college preparatory student takes Latin or French and the commercial student takes some commercial subject, typewriting or junior business practice. There is left only a little time for other work such as industrial arts, home economics, or music. In this plan, it is not possible for a student to explore or to try himself out in science, commercial work, and foreign languages. He must choose between them and, if he chooses one, he cannot take the others. In the college preparatory curriculum, also, he is often limited to history and cannot try himself out in civics. The sad fact is that with such a selection of subjects tryout in all desirable lines is impossible.

3. *Need for Reorganization.* There is great need, then, for a reorganization of subjects so that all can get the tryout that is needed and can explore fields now closed to them. This is the chief basis for the organization of the "general" courses such as general science, general mathematics, general social studies, and general language. These courses present an entirely new selection and organization of materials, based not upon the organization of the subject but upon what are taken to be the needs of the students. The general science course will illustrate this.

This course of study has practically abandoned the former closely drawn distinctions between its constituent parts of biology, physics, chemistry, and physiography. It is organized as a survey course of the whole field of science and is designed to interpret the early adolescent environment in respect to its explanation from the viewpoint of science. It deals, therefore, with the simpler aspects of the phenomena of science. Objectively, it seeks to interpret to the inquisitive minds of young adolescents the common things of their everyday life, to train powers of observation, and to initiate pupils in scientific methods of investigation and experiment.

At the same time, this course affords an opportunity for pupils to test their aptitudes for special sciences. That is, it explores aptitudes for further science study and reveals the possibilities of the more highly specialized sciences. The fundamental junior-high-school objectives are realized without sacrificing other underlying principles of articulation with nature study and the scientific elements of geography and of orienting senior-high-school sciences.[2]

Moreover, these courses are part of the core curriculum, required of all students because it is considered necessary for every pupil to explore these fields and to have a chance to try himself out in each line of activity. There is, also, the same necessity for reorganization of material in English to make it better suited for exploration and tryout. The core-curriculum plan described on pages 535 to 536 has many advantages for exploration.

4. *Reorganization of Method.* Nor is the reorganization of material and courses the only change necessary. One of the greatest needs is that of reorganization of methods of instruction. The personality of the teacher and not the subject, the method of instruction and not the material studied, are often the best means of exploration and tryout. A poor or a dull teacher will make any subject uninteresting, however interesting it may be in itself, and motivation is necessary before students will put forth their best efforts. Initiative is not revealed unless there is something worth while to do. Persistence ceases to be a virtue when the work seems useless. To reveal abilities and interests we must have material that is in itself valuable, that appeals to the student as worth while, and we must provide a real, compelling, impelling motive for work. We must so organize our class procedure that there is a real vital place for initiative, independence, and self-control.

III. Short Unit Courses

1. *Nature of Short Unit Courses.*

Short unit courses of half a semester or a whole semester are another type of exploratory activity frequently employed to test the aptitudes of pupils for the elective courses in the junior- and senior-high-school programs of studies. These short unit courses provide from four to eight exploratory experiences for pupils in the seventh

<hr/>

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 35.

and eighth years. They are short exposure courses and usually elective. Their specific purpose is exploration. They are not usually component parts of the core curriculum. The very nature of the courses does not guarantee their continuity. They become a minor part of the whole experience of junior-high-school pupils.

The elective principle involved will assure all pupils some exploratory experiences, but it cannot assure all pupils all the exploratory experiences of a continuous and progressive core curriculum of constants. The short unit courses are likely to result in the elimination of some fundamental core subject, frequently science, the coordination of English and Latin, the introductory course to business life, the arts courses, and occasionally even social studies, all of which are component parts of the general-education objective which the junior high school should not interrupt even temporarily. Short unit courses tend, therefore, to become short-circuit courses.[3]

2. *Short Unit Courses in Okmulgee.* During the decade from 1920 to 1930 many schools offered short unit courses in a variety of subjects. They varied in length from four weeks to twenty weeks. One of the best descriptions of these courses is that given by Eugene G. Briggs, at that time Superintendent of Schools in Okmulgee, Okla. Although the plan has been considerably modified and many short unit courses dropped, it will serve to give a clear idea of the extent, nature, and purposes of such courses.

Twenty-eight finding and broadening courses are offered. These courses are nine and eighteen weeks in length. They offer a sampling, as it were, of the various fields of activity. They are called finding and broadening for two reasons: "Finding" because, in the opinion of those who have studied them throughout the experimental period since their organization eight years ago, they assist materially in finding the new courses to be taken in high school and which likely will be continued in college. In many instances they have materially assisted the individual in finding his life work. "Broadening" because they enrich the experiences, extend the interests, and broaden the sympathies of those who follow through. Each course has for its initial objective the cross-sectioning of one major field of activity.

Before any course of study is developed or curriculum built, it is necessary that certain well-defined aims be recognized and outlined. The following aims for the exploratory courses are offered:

1. To acquaint the pupil, by a tryout or a sampling process, with the possibilities in the vocational fields of activity.

2. To offer a choice of future work, through a glimpse at the represented typical cross sections of the major fields of activity, to explain the more advanced situation, and to show the possibilities if the pupil will but persist in school.

3. To acquaint the pupil, through a previewing procedure, with the specialized secondary school courses.

4. To give the pupil, through reliable experience, an estimate of his educational adaptabilities early in his career.

5. To present only material in itself worth while to the extent pursued and entirely justifiable from a pedagogical standpoint.

Attention is directed to the fact that finding and broadening courses are not confined to courses in industrial work, as is sometimes wrongfully supposed and advocated by some. It is just as necessary to give the boy an idea of the demands made upon one by the legal or medical profession as it is to introduce him to the desirable and distasteful offerings of the machine shop. The following finding and broadening courses are given in Okmulgee:

Preparatory Class	Subfreshman Class
Art	Art [1]
Auto mechanics	Auto mechanics
Cooking	Building trades
Electricity	Business
Expression	Cooking [1]
Home nursing	English-Latin
Journalism	Interior decorating
Mechanical drawing	Mechanical drawing
Music	Music
Science	Premodern language
Sewing	Printing
Vocational information	Public speaking
	Sewing
	Sheet metal and forging
	Vocational information
	Woodwork

[1] Those courses repeated in the subfreshman year are of two kinds: (1) regular *nine weeks'* course in another section of the great field, (2) an eighteen weeks' course continuing the nine weeks' study in the preparatory class. . . .

It was the tendency at first to teach too much subject matter and too many facts. The teachers, not being accustomed to teach directly

about the activities of life, confined themselves to recorded tables and lists of vocations, but soon they began to see that the important thing was for the teacher to allow the pupil to learn about these great fields of humanity by actually living in replica, "getting out and getting under," "shooting the trouble," making "the plea" in a courtroom, producing something of value in a shop.[4]

In a study of thirty cities of over 100,000 population, made in 1926,[5] it was found that sixteen were using short unit courses. Such courses were offered in fifty-five subjects in eight different fields in the junior high school. Table XXII shows these subjects and the number of cities in which each was offered. In shopwork twenty-two different subjects were mentioned.

3. *Present Status of Short Unit Courses.* From the first there has been persistent criticism of this type of exploratory course. This criticism has been aimed at the shortness of the time and the lack of continuity of the work. "They may be interesting, but their value is likely to be very limited." Every course should be so organized as to be of some real value, other than tryout, for everyone taking it. When the basic needs of junior-high-school pupils are cared for in the curriculum, there is very little time left for short unit courses. It is thought by many that the purposes of such courses may more quickly and accurately be attained by prognosis and aptitude tests now available. The changes made in the program of the Okmulgee Junior High School indicate to some extent the present tendency. Superintendent W. Max Chambers reports[6] that at present the following short unit courses are offered: music, spelling, library training, literature appreciation, sewing and cooking, manners and etiquette, budgeting, home planning, home nursing, home arts, mechanical drawing, woodwork, general mechanics, guidance, and physical education. Much of the work given formerly in short unit courses is now incorporated into longer courses as units. This, no doubt, applies also to some of the courses listed above. Tests of various kinds and the quality and general char-

---

[4] Briggs, Eugene S., Exploration in Junior High School, *Proceedings of the National Education Association,* 65:665–667, 1927.

[5] Reported in "The Junior High School Curriculum," pp. 420–423, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Washington, D.C., February, 1927.

[6] From a letter received December, 1941, in answer to an inquiry.

TABLE XXII. SUBJECTS IN WHICH SHORT UNIT COURSES ARE OFFERED IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Subjects	No. of cities offering short unit courses	Subjects	No. of cities offering short unit courses
1. Commercial:		5. Mathematics:	
Commercial............	1	Arithmetic............	2
Commercial geography..	1	Mathematics..........	1
Typing...............	2		
		Total...............	3
Total...............	4	6. Science:	
2. Drawing:		General science........	4
Art..................	1	7. Social science:	
Freehand drawing......	1	Community civics......	1
Mechanical drawing....	3	Social science.........	5
Total...............	5	Total...............	6
3. Home economics:		8. Shop:	
Cooking..............	2	Electricity............	2
Domestic science.......	1	Industrial arts........	9
Home economics.......	1	Machine shop..........	2
Sewing..............	2	Printing..............	3
		Sheet metal............	2
Total...............	6	Woodwork............	3
4. Languages:			
Ancient..............	1	Total...............	21
General..............	3		
Modern..............	2		
Total...............	6		

acter of work in the various subjects are relied upon for the discovery of abilities and interests.

IV. SCHOOL LIFE AND STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. *Activity as the Basis of All Education.* The field of activities, often miscalled "extracurricular" activities, has received increasing attention during the last decade. This is because we are recognizing the fundamental educational value of activity as a basis of all learning and of all education. It is also a recog-

nition of the educational value of less formalized procedure in learning and of a larger measure of self-direction. Under student activities are now included all kinds of clubs, athletics, dramatics, student participation in government, and school life in general.

2. *Unique Value of Student Activities.* The value of these activities for tryout and exploration is now recognized to be very great. Since there is a larger degree of freedom and a lack of formalized procedure, qualities of leadership, initiative, and independence are given an opportunity to reveal themselves. Interest and ability of a specific nature are often shown far more clearly than in the classroom. Dramatic ability, not suspected in the study of the English classics, is brought out; skill in construction is revealed by activities in a radio club, in the Boy Scouts, or in a science club. Ability in public speaking or debate is revealed in debating or public-speaking clubs and directly influences the choice of a profession; interest in securing news items on the school paper or talent for writing stories or ability in business management is often brought to light by various activities in connection with the school paper. These interests and abilities thus brought to light are often far more significant than those shown in the regular class.

These activities should be so organized and directed that they supplement the regular curriculum of the school and provide ample opportunity for exploration and tryout in various kinds of activity. They should be considered as indispensable parts of the curriculum offering of the school.

3. *Need for Discovering Abilities.* One of the principal difficulties met with in the utilization of student activities for tryout purposes is that little, if any, systematic attempt is made to search out students who have ability. It is left largely to chance. Students often join a club because of the personality of the sponsor and not because of any interest in the activity represented by the club. There is also little attempt to make a record of interests and abilities revealed by participation in the various clubs.

4. *Tacoma Plan.* A very interesting and hopeful plan was used for some time in the high schools of Tacoma, Wash., to secure information about students' interests and abilities and to provide opportunity for their utilization and development. This

activities in which you participate during your school life. It will also show any special work that you do, or office that you hold in these activities. But for the present, enter on it only the activities in which you are now engaged. On the back fill out only the blanks asking for your name. The *Ability Indicator* will be explained later.

Activities Index Card. Fill out one of these cards for each activity in which you are now engaged. You are automatically a member of your class so you will fill out at least one of these cards. You will also fill out, in addition to that, one for each other organization of which you are a member, for instance, one for Hi-Y Club, one for basket ball, one for Senior Orchestra, as well as one for your membership in the Senior Class. On the back write only your name and the name of the activity represented by the card.

When you have made the initial entries on these cards, return them to your teacher who will return them to the *Student Activities Record Corps,* a group of clerks who will enter them in the permanent files for record to your credit. Later changes, such as membership in other organizations, elections to office, appointment on a committee, withdrawals, will be reported by the secretaries of the organizations and returned for entry and permanent record to the clerks in the *Student Activities Record Corps.* . . .

The Ability Indicator. Without any doubt there is much ability in the school that we know nothing of for a number of reasons. For instance, there are students who are splendid workers but who are diffident and perhaps self-effacing. There are students who are active in extracurricular work, but not in such a way as to make an outstanding record of ability, as for instance, the good harmonizer, the pep generator, the person who does excellent work in a minor position on a special committee. Sometimes those people stand out, but many times they do not. Perhaps they, themselves, are totally unaware that they are exceptional or that they have latent possibilities which may be or may become extremely valuable. These things are observed by the other fellow—the man working with him who is a keen observer and knows ability when he sees it.

Now it seems most worth while to recognize this latent power. There are so many fine things that are hard to put your finger on: intangible but splendid things that make people invaluable. If we can show appreciation of these things it is good. But if we can also make a sort of record so that these same potentialities may be developed and used to the advantage of their possessors, the school, and the world outside the school, then something has been achieved.

Therefore on the back of the cards is the blank which we have termed *Ability Indicator.* The information for this blank may be furnished by almost anyone who is in a position to observe special

ability in action, as it were. An *Ability Informatory Report* is supplied for noting such ability. You observe a special ability in a fellow student. You procure an *Ability Informatory Report* from the *Student Activities Record Corps*, fill it out and return it to the *Record Corps* and the entry will be recorded on the permanent card record. To be sure, the informatory report may have to be O.K.'d by some member of the faculty or an officer in the student organization in which ability was observed, but you, yourself, are developing an exceptional quality when you are observing fine things in other people.

Whether or not this ability indicator is to be of value will depend largely on the students. If no entries are made, there is, of course, no harm done. If entries *are* made, vague possibilities may be developed into positive and *recognized* abilities. *You* are the people who see and know, really know, people in the school.

By you this special record will be made.[7]

The work of recording these activities is done entirely by students who are organized into a *Student Activities Record Corps.* This work in itself counts as a student activity and is supervised, as any other activity is, by a faculty sponsor. This system provides a means for searching out abilities, utilizing for this purpose not only the teachers but fellow students as well. It also makes a careful record of all activities engaged in for short or long periods. Such information constitutes most valuable data for guidance of every kind.

V. Other Activities and Experiences

1. *Home, Social, and Play Activities.* Another source of useful information is found in the life of the student out of school. Obviously, if we wish to learn all we can about students we cannot neglect their home life, their social activities, and their play experiences. All these may reveal characteristics, abilities, and interests that do not appear in their life in school. Parents can often give helpful information about health, study habits, general traits, and special interests. A careful record of the total life of the student, after school hours and in vacations, is also very helpful.

2. *Work Experience.* Work experience is the student's experience in work in an occupation before he begins a full-time job. Five types of such experience are recognized: (1) Work

[7] *Used by special permission of the author.*

done in some project undertaken for the benefit of the school, usually without pay, but where, as far as possible, actual job conditions are maintained. There are many such jobs. Some of these are in connection with work in the shop, in making or repairing school apparatus, rebinding books, assisting in the library, etc. Some are not connected with class activities, such as seeding the lawn, planting trees, laying out an athletic field, etc. (2) Work done for the community, performing some public service as a useful citizen, such as mosquito eradication, clearing waste land, caterpillar control, etc. (3) Job experience, with pay, in connection with the school program where part of the time is spent in school and part on an actual job. (4) Work experience in connection with a school where articles are produced in quantity, often for sale. (5) Experience in part-time jobs, not connected with the school program, after school or in vacation.

With the growing recognition that the curriculum of the student must include the total activities of his life in school and out of school, these work experiences are considered to be an indispensable part of a well-rounded education. Antioch College, among other similar institutions, considers actual work experience as an essential part of a liberal education. Some other general values are also recognized, among them being: (1) the emphasis upon cooperative school and community relationships, (2) the recognition of the value of factors in school life other than the purely academic, (3) the retention in school of students who would otherwise drop out, and (4) the financial help it gives to needy students.

In addition to this general value, or as a part of it, such experiences can be very useful in revealing or developing interests and in disclosing abilities and aptitudes that help in choosing a life work.

3. *Difficulty in Securing Reliable Information.* The great difficulty is to devise some means by which reliable information about such activities can be obtained. Frequent conferences with parents are mutually helpful. Talks with employers are often productive in gaining important facts. But all such information must be carefully screened and interpreted. One of the best methods is to have the student describe and analyze these experiences for himself. This can be done as regular theme

work in English, as articles for the school paper, as projects in social studies or in the class in occupations, or in his own "life history" or school diary.

REFERENCES

1. ALLEN, FREDERICK J.: "Principles and Problems in Vocational Guidance," pp. 325–331, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1927.

2. DILLON, H. J.: "Work Experience in Secondary Education," National Child Labor Committee, New York, June, 1946. A useful and stimulating discussion.

3. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," rev. ed., pp. 256–258, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949. A brief but excellent discussion of work experience.

4. FEDDER, RUTH: "Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. A general discussion of the kinds and values of home-room and club activities and methods of evaluation.

5. GRUHN, WILLIAM T., and HARL R. DOUGLASS: "The Modern Junior High School," The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947. A good general book on the junior high school with a helpful chapter on student activities.

6. HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON: "Guidance in the Secondary School," pp. 183–213, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. An excellent description and analysis of exploratory and tryout activities and of the function of extracurricular activities.

7. LEGG, C. E., C. A. JESSEN, and M. M. PROFFIT: School and Work Programs, U.S. *Office of Education Bulletin*, 1947, No. 9. An excellent source.

8. McKOWN, HARRY C., editor: "Home Room Guidance," rev. ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. A standard source on home-room and student activities.

9. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," pp. 141–155, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. One of the best brief treatments of the functions, values, and limitations of exploratory and tryout experiences.

10. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: "Secondary Education and National Needs," March, 1941, and "Youth and the Future," May, 1941. National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Washington, D.C., 1941. These contain helpful discussions of work experience.

11. REED, ANNA Y.: "Guidance and Personnel Services in Education," pp. 304–305, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, N.Y., 1944. A concise statement of out-of-school experiences and their use.

12. STONE, C. H.: Are Vocational Orientation Courses Worth Their Salt? *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:161–181, Summer, 1948. Questions the value of such courses.

13. Wiley, George M.: "The Redirection of Secondary Education," pp. 304–315, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940. A somewhat critical, but sane, discussion of extracurricular activities and their function.

14. Yeager, William A.: "Administration and the Pupil," pp. 399–401, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. A brief description of work experience.

USE OF TESTS IN STUDYING THE INDIVIDUAL

I. PURPOSE OF TESTS—TO GET OBJECTIVE DATA

One of the greatest needs in all forms of guidance, as well as in other phases of education, is that of obtaining reliable information—*facts*—that can be tested and upon which we can act with confidence. Human nature is so complex and methods of analysis and measurement are as yet so inadequate that we are seldom entirely certain that the records we have are accurate or complete. The past twenty-five years has witnessed a marked development in the effort to obtain data that are objective and fairly reliable. We have not yet succeeded in removing all subjective factors from measurements (it is quite possible that we never shall be able to do this); nor have we devised entirely accurate tests and standards, but the significant thing is that much progress toward these ends has already been made and the way opened for further developments. No guidance worker can, for a moment, afford to neglect this means for securing information or minimize its great value.

II. TESTS AND SCALES OF ACHIEVEMENT IN SCHOOL SUBJECTS

The first group of tests to be considered will be the school achievement tests, which are devised to measure achievement in subjects studied in the school.

1. *Tests by Teachers.* Since the pioneer work of Thorndike in the first decade of the century, many experts have concentrated their efforts upon such tests. At present, there is no subject taught in the public school for which some kind of achievement test has not been devised. Of course, all tests given by teachers are, or are intended to be, tests of achievement. The first difficulty with most of them is the same as that for teachers' marks as discussed in Chap. VI; they include so many different things: effort, skills, judgments, opinions, appreciations, as well

as language ability, handwriting, and deportment. Some represent achievement in the subject and some do not; some can readily be measured, and some are extremely difficult to measure. The second difficulty is that there is no definite length of time given to the tests, nor are the questions graded according to difficulty, nor is the form of the various tests the same. This makes it impossible to compare the results of one test with those of another when given by the same teacher or by different teachers. The third difficulty grows out of the first two: subjective opinions of teachers enter into the grades given on the tests.

Although most of the tests constructed by teachers for their own use are of the essay type, an increasing number are of the so-called "new type," which require little writing and can be objectively scored. These teacher-made new-type tests are not infrequently just as effective as the standardized tests of the same type in revealing achievements and weaknesses of pupils, and should not be condemned. The results cannot, of course, be compared with those of other classes or other schools. Nor can we rule out the essay type of test as being ineffective. Some things that are very important for us to know about pupils can be revealed better by well-constructed essay-type tests than by the new type of test. Research has amply demonstrated that carefully constructed essay-type tests may be more valid as tests of certain objectives than the new-type tests. It has become increasingly apparent that we cannot eliminate from consideration the subjective judgments of capable, well-trained teachers who know their pupils and who can, through this knowledge, interpret their written expressions. These judgments are often the most reliable evidence we have.

2. *Standard Achievement Tests.* Standard achievement tests attempt to correct some of the faults of teachers' tests. (1) They are so formed as to test only those things that can be more or less objectively tested. (2) Only the definite achievements in the subject studied are tested, as far as this is possible. (3) Each test is arranged so that the answers are always given in the same way, a definite and precise length of time is given for the test, the explanations and directions to be given are always the same, and definite, detailed directions for scoring the test are given. Such tests are the result of experimentation, and no test is sent

out until very carefully revised, as the result of much trial and experimentation. The results are standardized by collecting the answers from thousands of cases in different parts of the country. These results are tabulated, and standards or norms for each grade or year of school are constructed. By means of these standards we can compare the achievements of John and Henry in the same grade and of both with the achievement of the class as a whole, or, if necessary, with the students in the same grade in some other school system.

Such standard tests are now a part of the regular equipment of our elementary and secondary schools and are gradually being worked out in the field of higher education. In addition to these, we have, in some fields, scales by which it is possible to measure objectively degrees of quality and quantity of achievement. Among such scales now in use may be mentioned handwriting scales, English composition scales, drawing scales, and scales of literary appreciation.

3. *Limitations of Standardized Tests.* The chief difficulties encountered in the use of such tests and scales are probably incident to their newness and incompleteness. First, they do not measure all of the desirable outcomes in any subject. For the most part they are much more effective in measuring the formal side of education than any other. No effective standardized tests have as yet been devised for the adequate testing of judgment, appreciation, power to organize, initiative, leadership, and character. Some tests attempt to do so indirectly and are undoubtedly very helpful, but they are acknowledged to be ineffective instruments as yet. Again, when pupils are given standardized tests and their achievement scores in these are taken as a measure of the success of their work and also of the success of the teacher, the emphasis is placed upon the particular element that is tested; when, as is so often the case, this is the formal side, there is great danger that teachers will also place the main emphasis upon the formal side. When this is done, the educative process is greatly weakened and impoverished. Standardized tests are often misused and thus may constitute a real danger. Norms of achievement for grades or years are sometimes used as ideals of attainment for all classes or all children of a given grade, when, as a matter of fact, the desirable attainment of any given child might well be either considerably above

or somewhat below the norm. Curriculum building is often too much influenced by such norms. Teachers sometimes fail to keep in mind exactly what a standardized test is supposed to measure and assume that a single test measures, for example, general reading ability, which it cannot and does not attempt to do.

4. *Values for Guidance.* It is hardly necessary to discuss the value of such tests and scales for guidance. Any accurate measure by which we can compare the achievement of one person with that of others and with averages of groups and even with his own previous achievement will help in diagnosing his points of strength and weakness as well as in judging his abilities. School progress can be gaged, remedial measures applied, and the entire situation improved.

When properly understood and intelligently used, these tests and scales are powerful factors in improvement because they enable us to diagnose difficulties. Often a careful analysis of such achievement tests not only reveals general weakness or strength but also enables the teachers to find exactly where the weakness is. An arithmetic test thus shows clearly whether the weakness of a particular student is in the fundamental operations, in decimals, or in analysis of the problem. Tests in physics have shown that failure was largely due (1) to language difficulties that prevented the student from understanding the problem and (2) to lack of skill in the fundamental operations of arithmetic that made the arithmetical operations in physics difficult. The wise use of tests in French has shown whether the difficulties encountered were in vocabulary or in knowledge of grammatical forms. As already pointed out in the discussion of teachers' marks in Chap. VI, the chief value in these standardized tests is that they enable us to get at the points of weakness or of strength; they give us definite facts.

III. GENERAL INTELLIGENCE TESTS

1. *Name of the Test.* Another kind of test has been found to have even greater value for guidance than the standard achievement tests in school subjects. Various names have been suggested for this type of test, but not one of them is entirely satisfactory. The most common names used are intelligence tests, general intelligence tests, mental tests, or tests of general mental ability. All tests, even of so-called "physical" traits, are

to some extent mental tests, since physical movements originate and are controlled in the central nervous system. School-subject tests are not only tests of achievement but mental tests as well. However, those called "mental tests" are designed primarily as tests of mental ability.

2. *Kinds of Tests.* Since the first Binet tests and especially since the Army Alpha Tests were introduced, there has been a great development in the number and quality of tests of general mental ability. Many kinds of such tests are now on the market and are used very generally in public and private schools and colleges as well as in business and industry. It will not be necessary here to describe in detail the different kinds since there are many excellent books and articles now available for this purpose. A few of these are listed in the references at the end of the chapter. Our chief concern here is the value of such tests for guidance.

3. *Elements Measured by Mental Tests.* There is, unfortunately, considerable confusion regarding just what such tests really test and how the results can best be interpreted. By many these are called tests of "intelligence." But what is intelligence? When we come to examine this term we find it used with several different connotations. There are at least three radically different concepts of the term.[1] First, there is the organic concept in which intelligence is taken to be the native capacity of the individual, hereditary largely, which makes it possible for him to adapt himself to his environment or learn to change it in ways that are useful to him. This is the view taken by some psychologists such as Witmer and Boynton. The second concept is the social or sociological concept, which emphasizes a certain group of social factors that profoundly affect the ways in which the individual adapts himself to his environment and changes his environment for his own ends. The third concept may be called the "behavioristic" or psychological concept, which stresses the power of the individual to adapt himself to a situation. When the resulting behavior is desirable or effective, it is called "intelligent" behavior. Intelligence is then defined as "the ability to learn acts or to perform new acts that are functionally useful." It considers native capacity (the organic concept) and social

[1] For a clear statement of the meanings of intelligence, see WALTER S. MONROE, editor, "Encyclopedia of Educational Research," pp. 622, 623.

influences (the social concept) as two important factors that determine intelligence.

It is obvious that, if the organic concept is accepted, these tests do not test intelligence; in fact, we can never hope to measure it, for by the time a child is born he has already been influenced both by his physical and by his social environment. Native capacity is an abstract term coined for the purpose of explaining certain phenomena of human life. It cannot, by its very nature, be proved, but it is a useful term because some differences between individuals are best explained by its use.

Each of these concepts has its value. However, for purposes of this discussion, the behavioristic concept is the one accepted both because it is the one used by most psychologists and because it is the one used most commonly in nontechnical discussions. It should be noted that intelligence, as thus defined, is not degree of adaptation nor effective behavior, nor merely achievements; not that which has been learned as such, but the *ability to adapt oneself,* to develop behavior that is effective, to learn. Differences in intelligence are differences not merely in what has been learned but in what can be learned; it is found not in the degree to which a person is adapted to a situation that has frequently recurred, but in the way in which he adapts himself to a new situation. It is this meaning of intelligence that is usually accepted by those who state that such tests measure intelligence. But do they really test intelligence as thus defined? It is obvious that the only thing that any test of this kind tests is performance at a given time. From such performance one might, with caution, predict what the later performances will be, but we do not test or measure these future performances.

The relationship between capacity and performance and between what the tests really test and the inferences we make from them may be clarified by a brief discussion of the meanings of the four terms commonly used. To these has been added a fifth which seems to be needed to fill in a gap in the series.

Capacity is used to indicate the upper limit of possible development as determined by heredity if environment and training are *continually* at their best. *Capability* is a term used to indicate the upper limit of possible development of an individual at any given time with optimum environment and training *from that time on.* The upper limit of possible development, indi-

cated by capacity, has been reduced by poor environment and training up to the present time. Capability is always less than capacity; it is continually being reduced as compared with our capacity because environment and training up to this time have not been the best possible. *Ability expectancy* may be used to indicate the probable limit of development, if present handicaps and general environmental factors remain relatively the same as they are now. Just as capability can never exceed capacity and probably never equals it, so ability expectancy can never exceed capability and is usually below it. *Ability* means the power at any given time, with present training and development, to respond in certain ways, to act, to adjust oneself. *Performance,* or *achievement,* indicates the way one actually responds, the way he answers the questions asked in a test, the proficiency of performance at any given time.

Tests can test only *performance,* in those areas covered by the test exercises and under the conditions surrounding it. They may approximate the testing of *ability* if the test items cover all areas needed to test the power to perform and if all conditions surrounding the test are optimum. Repeated tests and a comparison of results with previous performance and with the performance of other individuals often serve to give us some idea of *ability expectancy.* We do infer *capability* and *capacity* from the same tests but with much less probability of accuracy. We might almost make use of a law of physics and say that the accuracy of prediction of a given test varies inversely as the square of the distance away from *performance* and toward *capacity.*

4. *Mental Age and the I.Q.* The most frequent methods of expressing the results of mental tests are by the mental age and the intelligence quotient. These are very useful terms if used accurately, but very misleading when they convey meanings that were not intended.

The mental age, or M.A., is a device for comparing the score made by an individual on a given test with the scores made by many other individuals on the same test. The scores of all individuals are arranged by age norms or by mean or median scores of individuals at different ages. If the mean scores of ten-year-old children fall between 115 and 120, this is called "M.A. 10," and anyone, no matter what his chronological age,

who makes a score within this range is said to have an M.A. of 10. Mental age is a statement of comparative performance.

The I.Q. is the quotient of the mental age divided by the chronological age. It is a clever device to express the exact relationship between the chronological age of the individual and his mental age. It shows the relationship between the score made by a boy on a certain test and the scores made by others on the same test. It also shows whether the score he has made is equal to, higher than, or lower than that made by others of the same age. If his I.Q. is 100, his score is equal to the mean score of children of his chronological age; if it is 110, he has made a better score and, if 90, a lower score than that made by the average child of his age. It is an expression of relative performance.

What, then, does the I.Q. mean and how is it to be interpreted? Many still regard it as an indication or a measure of capacity. This, as has already been said, is impossible, for we have no means of testing capacity. To others it means capability. This is, of course, an inference only, for we cannot know what influences will be brought to bear upon the individual later. If his environment is poor and his training meager, he will not develop up to expectations. To some the I.Q. means mental ability. Obviously this is incorrect; a six-year-old girl with an I.Q. of 140 does not have the mental ability of a twelve-year-old girl with an I.Q. of 125. She cannot solve problems as well; she will not make so high a score on a mental test. Mental age is the term that is used to indicate mental ability. With much greater accuracy, the I.Q. may be taken to be an indication, or measure, of ability expectancy. What the individual does now, the score he has made on a test, is limited by his capacity and is the result of environment and training. Assuming that there will be no radical change in environment and training, we can roughly estimate his expected development or ability as related to other individuals. This concept of the I.Q. as ability expectancy makes room for the phenomenon of the "wandering I.Q." No matter what a boy's ability expectancy is now or how accurately it has been determined, a radical change in environment would normally affect his development either up or down and so would change his I.Q. if this represents expectancy. In Fig. 14 there are shown two possible mental growth curves. A test or several

tests given between *A* and *X* may enable us to plot his growth curve as *AXB*. This is his ability expectancy as based upon present conditions. But suppose at *X*, or just before, some physical disability has been removed, or he has been placed in a stimulating environment; his growth curve changes to *AXC*; he develops far beyond his ability expectancy as predicted by the curve *AX*. That this sometimes happens cannot be denied. That it does not happen more frequently may be a reflection on our

Fig. 14. Theoretical differences in the growth of an individual with changed environment.

methods of education. Investigations by Newman, Holzinger, and Freeman on identical twins, the work of Wellman and her associates in the State University of Iowa on nursery children, and the work of Skeels on children in foster homes all reveal marked differences in achievement, as measured by test scores, between children subjected to favorable or stimulating environment and those with less favorable surroundings. Although there is considerable doubt about the validity and reliability of

some of these experiments, we are forced to conclude that early environment does profoundly affect development. Other investigations indicate that the I.Q. or scores on tests of mental ability are influenced by such factors as education, family life, social status, health, nutrition, general care, and freedom from worry and undue strain. The extent of the influences of these factors is not yet clear but it seems certain that it is considerable, especially in early childhood.

T. E. McMullin has suggested a method by which we might express the relationship between the score of an individual and those of other individuals and avoid some of the implications that have surrounded the I.Q. Instead of comparing the score of a boy of twelve with the scores of children of all ages, he would compare it with the scores of children of his own age. This might be called the "age performance norm." The total range

of scores of all twelve-year-old children on the same test would be arranged in decile or centile norms and the position of any one boy could be very accurately described. It would be just as good a measure of ability expectancy as if his score were to be compared with that of all children. It would also have many advantages, especially for individuals beyond sixteen years, for it would avoid the difficulty now experienced in computing the I.Q. for the older groups. It would not be any more useful in indicating ability expectancy for the older group than would the I.Q., but it would show how a man of thirty years compared with other thirty-year-old people.

The general principle of this method is used in the Bellevue Intelligence Scale constructed by Wechsler. This consists of five verbal and five nonverbal subtests. The score made by any individual is compared with the average performance of individuals of the same age group. This test has been found to correlate well with clinical judgments of individuals tested. However, it still makes use of the I.Q. instead of using centile norms.

Whatever method is taken to express the test performance relative to that of other individuals there still remains the question of what the test itself really measures. Does it measure mental ability? It is becoming increasingly clear that most tests test what has been learned and probably what has been *overlearned* and, therefore, remembered. Tests involving new materials, new problems, new situations would be more effective, but it is extremely difficult to devise tests that would, for every individual tested, be really new. Ability expectancy could be much better estimated by curves of growth in learning over a number of years and by comparing the growth curve of one individual with those of others of the same age. It should be remembered, however, that ability expectancy is based not only on past performance but also on past environment. One cannot be too sure about future development, for environmental factors may change and profoundly affect future development.

In spite of the acknowledged inaccuracies and inadequacies of mental tests and a lack of agreement on what it is they measure, these tests and the M.A. and I.Q. are expressions of relative prediction of future growth and accomplishment. Some of the most important uses of these tests will now be discussed.

5. *General Predictive Value of Mental Tests.* The chief value of mental tests for guidance is in the prediction of future performance. Much has been written on this topic and many experimental studies have been made. Unfortunately the results of these studies do not agree; some show fairly high correlation and some very low. In spite of this conflicting evidence, some authors continue to claim a high predictive value for their particular tests. In view of the present uncertainty, these claims cannot be justified and any statements regarding their value for guidance should be made with great caution and with due regard for the lack of conclusive evidence. In the following brief discussion the results of some significant experiments will be given and some tentative conclusions will be made.

6. *Relation of Mental Test Scores to Certain Traits.* There seems to be little relationship between scores on mental tests and any of the following: musical or artistic ability, character as generally understood, sex, race, month of birth, age of parents at time of birth. The evidence on social "adjustment" and socioeconomic status of parents is conflicting. Hollingworth has stated that children with I.Q.'s from 125 to 155 have the best prospects of developing successful and well-rounded personalities, but preliminary findings by Terman in his twenty-year study of 1,000 high-ability children do not seem to agree with this. Some investigators have found that in college students intelligence is unrelated to introversion, to emotional stability, or to frequency of anger. There is some evidence that socioeconomic status has an appreciable cumulative effect upon intelligence as measured by tests. Disturbing behavior at home, maladjustment at schools, and lack of harmony between children at home seem to be more common among those who test low.

7. *Prediction of School Success.* Success in school may be indicated in three ways: (1) length of stay in school or school expectancy, (2) absence of failure in studies, (3) academic achievement as indicated by school marks or teachers' estimates. Each of these will be discussed at the elementary, secondary school, and college levels.

 a. Length of Stay in School. Up to the time when the compulsory-attendance laws were more rigidly enforced, the elimination from school before the age of fifteen or sixteen seemed to

have little significant relationship to mental test scores, over-
ageness being much more important. At present, studies of
elimination up to the seventh grade are of little importance
because all are compelled to be in school. Beyond the com-
pulsory-attendance age, for high school and college, length of
stay in school has seemed to be more closely related to scores on
mental tests. An investigation by Feingold made some years
ago is still significant. In a study of the students in Hartford
High School the distribution of students into intelligence groups
was as shown in Table XXIII.

TABLE XXIII. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN EACH MENTAL GROUP IN SIX
CLASSES AT THE BEGINNING OF THE TERM [1]

Class	L9 [2]	U9	L10	U10	L11	U11
Superior (I.Q. 110+).............	9.4	11.0	12.0	13.5	17.0	18.8
Average (I.Q. 95–109).............	65.0	67.5	71.7	71.2	70.5	69.0
Inferior (I.Q. 94 and below).........	25.6	21.4	16.3	15.3	12.5	12.2

[1] FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A., Intelligence and Persistency in High School Attendance,
School and Society, 18:443–450, Oct. 13, 1923.

[2] L9 means lower ninth grade, U9 means upper ninth grade, etc.

This table shows that 9.4 per cent of the pupils in the lower
ninth grade are superior, 65 per cent are average, and 25.6 per
cent are inferior, while in the upper half of the eleventh grade
18.8 per cent are superior, 69 per cent average, and 12.2 per
cent are inferior. Feingold estimates that if the class were traced
through the three years the percentages of each intelligence
group remaining in school would be as shown in Table XXIV.

The situation is brought out more clearly by Fig. 15. It is
described by Feingold as follows: [2]

Confining our investigation to the Hartford High School, wherein
the system of semiannual promotion prevails, we observe that, of the
superior pupils, 10.6 per cent will have dropped out by the beginning

[2] FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A., Intelligence and Persistency in High School
Attendance, *School and Society*, 18:445, Oct. 13, 1923.

TABLE XXIV. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS REMAINING AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH TERM [1]

Class	L9	U9	L10	U10	L11	U11
Superior............................	100.0	100.0	89.4	86.2	81.4	80.0
Average............................	100.0	88.3	77.3	65.8	48.8	42.5
Inferior............................	100.0	71.0	44.6	36.0	22.1	19.2

[1] FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A., Intelligence and Persistency in High School Attendance *School and Society*, 18:445, Oct. 13, 1923.
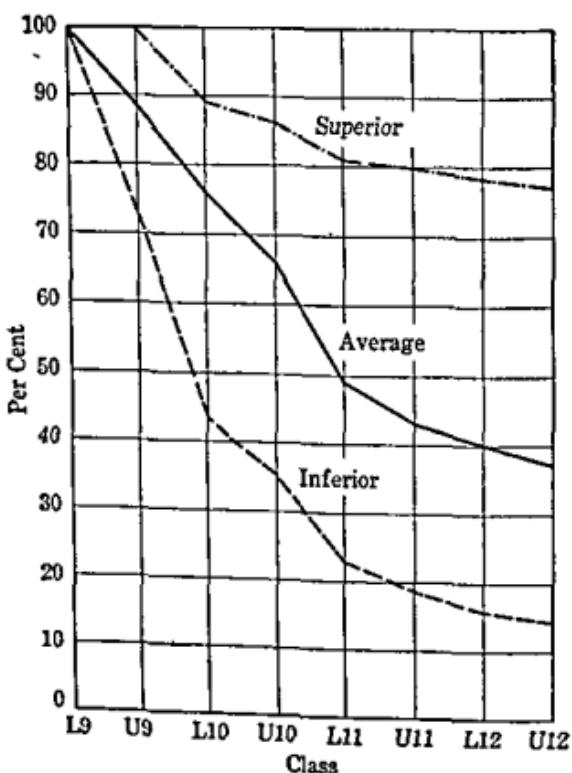
FIG. 15. Percentage of students remaining at the beginning of each term.

of the sophomore year. An additional 8 per cent will have dropped out by the beginning of the junior year, and another 1.4 per cent will have dropped out by the beginning of the senior year. Thus, by the end of three years, some 20 per cent will have left school, while fully 80 per cent will graduate at the end of the four years, since figures

show that very few who become seniors leave without graduating. On the other hand, among the lowest mental group, fully 55.4 per cent will have dropped out by the end of the first year, another 22.5 per cent will have dropped out by the end of the second year, and almost a total of 81 per cent will have dropped out by the end of the third year. In other words, only 19 per cent of them will be left in the high school at the end of three years, or long enough to enter the senior class.

Proctor made a careful study of 131 cases of high-school students and followed them up over a period of six years. Some of the results of this study are given in Table XXV.

TABLE XXV. COMPARATIVE STUDY OF 131 HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS [1]

	Num-ber	Range I.Q.	Median I.Q.	Upper quar-tile	Low-est quar-tile	Median high-school mark	Range in average mark
I. Students who did not com-plete high school	30	116–79	94	116–100	88–79	C	B to D
II. Students who completed high school but who did not continue their schooling	34	128–89	100	128–110	97–89	B–	A– to D+
III. Students who completed high school and continued their schooling	67	142–93	118	142–125	107–93	B	A to C

[1] PROCTOR, W. M., Psychological Tests and Guidance of High School Pupils, *Journal of Educational Research Monographs*, No. 1, October, 1923. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., rev. ed., 1923. Constructed from material in Chap. IV. (*Used by special permission of the publishers.*)

This shows some striking differences among the three groups. The highest I.Q. of Group I, those who did not complete high school, was lower than the median of Group III, those who went to college. Roughly the higher half of Group I corresponds in I.Q. to the lower half of Group III. On the other hand, we may say that the upper half of Group I have, so far as I.Q. is concerned, as good a chance to succeed in college as the lower half of Group III.

Figure 16 and Table XXVI show that there are no striking differences in I.Q. for Groups I and II; a somewhat larger percentage of Group I have low I.Q.'s. The greatest difference is seen in Group III—those who have gone to college. Here the

TABLE XXVI. COMPARISON OF THREE GROUPS OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS
ACCORDING TO I.Q.[1]

(Percentages)

Intelligence quotients	Group I		Group II		Group III	
	Number	Per-centage	Number	Per-centage	Number	Per-centage
140–149	..	..	..	..	1	2
130–139	..	..	..	..	11	16.4
120–129	..	..	2	6	17	25.4
110–119	3	10	7	21	19	28.2
100–109	5	17	12	35	12	18
90– 99	13	43	12	35	7	10
80– 89	8	27	1	3		
70– 79	1	3				

[1] PROCTOR, W. M., Psychological Tests and Guidance of High School Pupils, *Journal of Educational Research Monographs*, No. 1, October, 1923. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., rev. ed., 1923. Constructed from material in Chap. IV. (*Used by special permission of the publishers.*)

There can be no doubt that students in secondary schools and colleges, as a group, make higher scores on mental tests than those who have dropped out of school. However, this does not necessarily prove that failure to go on was related to whatever is measured by tests. Several studies indicate that socioeconomic status of parents, occupational preference, and overageness are at least equally important as causes of elimination. Of course, when colleges use scores or some form of mental tests as a basis for admission of students there is a definite relationship because it is a forced one. As will be seen later, this does not prove that many of those who were refused admission could not have been successful if they had been admitted.

On the whole, we may say that, for *groups*, scores on mental tests have a fairly high predictive value for school expectancy. It should be remembered that the predictive value for individuals is small and that other factors are equally important. Some of these will be discussed in Chap. IX.

b. School Failures. Failures in the elementary school are for the most part failures in promotion and have been for some years greatly affected by the idea of "100 per cent promotion." For this reason, studies of the relationship between mental test scores and failure are largely meaningless. In spite of this several studies have shown that this relationship is not close enough nor constant enough to warrant any positive conclusion. One investigator found that 64 per cent of 1,485 first-grade failures had I.Q.'s above 90. Another found that success in beginning reading was conditioned by the teacher and by the methods used as much as by the intelligence level of the pupil.

While the "100 per cent promotion" idea is not so influential in the secondary school as in the elementary school, it still is strong enough to obscure differences that might exist. Here again the evidence is conflicting. No one can doubt that there is a definite relationship between mental test scores and secondary-school failures, but the correlation is not high enough to warrant dependence upon it for the prediction of the failure of individual pupils. Many studies have shown that high-school failures are definitely related to emotional instability and to faulty preparation in the fundamental subjects.

There are few reliable studies that deal directly with the relationship between failures in college subjects and intelligence scores. Most of them relate to elimination or retention in college and to college grades or honors received.

We know that elimination is not always caused by failures in subjects and that failures are by no means always caused by lack of ability. Many other factors enter in to cause failures. Among these may be noted home conditions, social life at college, lack of adjustment to college life and methods of teaching, athletics, lack of purpose, and health. There can be no question that lack of intellectual ability is the cause of many failures. Theoretically, this should be more evident at present with the changed standards of admission to college and with the influence of the slogan, "If you want to be successful, go to college." As a matter of fact, there is some evidence that the I.Q. of college freshmen is consistently rising. The most we can say is that there is clear relationship between scores on mental tests and

college failures, but, as in the case of the secondary school, *it is not high enough to warrant complete dependence upon it.*

c. Academic Achievement. Nearly all studies show a fairly high correlation between intelligence scores and scholastic grades in high school and college. High scores in mental tests are usually associated with high scholastic grades and especially with honors received, while low scores are usually associated with low grades. This is well shown by the Brown University studies. Brown University for years gave tests to incoming freshmen and

TABLE XXVII. RELATION OF SCORES TO ACADEMIC STANDING—BROWN
UNIVERSITY

Eighty Students Reported as Unsatisfactory in Schoolwork

Rating in Psychological Tests	Number Reported as Unsatisfactory
Poor or very poor........................	53
Average.....................................	14
Good or very good.........................	13

used the rating as a basis for classification. Tables XXVII and XXVIII will serve to show some interesting facts regarding the relationship between intelligence rating and college success.[3]

TABLE XXVIII. RELATION OF SCORES TO ACADEMIC STANDING—BROWN
UNIVERSITY

Thirty-four Students Reported as Doing Better than Average Work

Rating in Psychological Tests	Number Reported as Better than Average
Superior..........................	5
Very good..........................	19
Good..............................	7
Average............................	2
Poor...............................	1

These tables show that more unsatisfactory cases are reported among those lower in intelligence rating than among those higher; and that more cases of students doing better than average

[3] TYSON, GEORGE R., Results of Intelligence Examinations Held in the Colleges and High Schools, *University of Pennsylvania Bulletin*, 21 (No. 1): 262–270. Seventh Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 1920.

work are reported among those higher in intelligence than among those lower. It should be noted again that the resemblance is not complete and great care should be taken not to interpret the results too generally. Figure 17, taken from the same study, throws additional light upon the same question.[4]
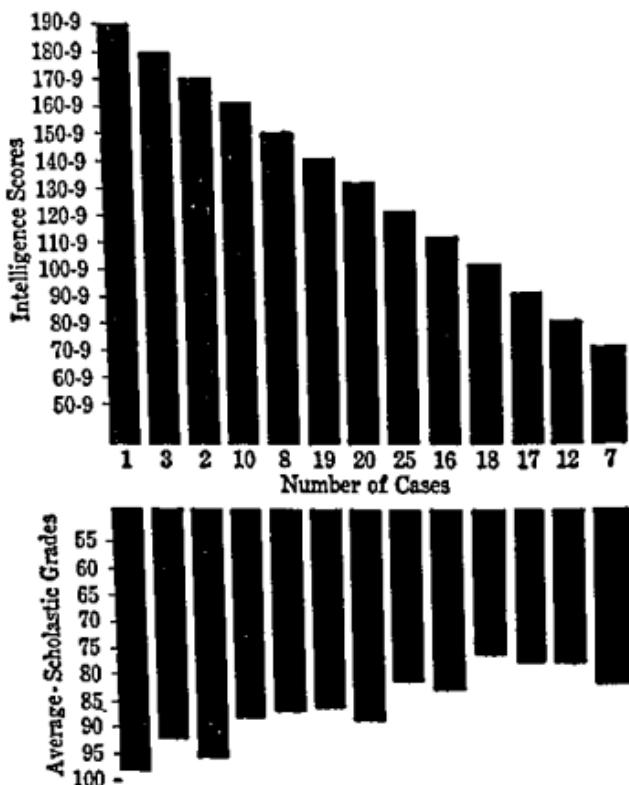
FIG. 17. Comparison of scores in Alpha Test with college marks of 159 women at Southern Methodist University.

The diagram is a graphic representation of the Pearson coefficient of correlation, 0.52, that was obtained. In the upper half of the diagram we have regular steps of ten points interval, showing the intelligence scores. Below each step is recorded the number of persons receiving the score of that step. In the lower half of the diagram is found the average of the school grades received by the persons having the intelligence score above. Thus the diagram reads, from left to right, one person received an intelligence score of between 190 and 199 and a school mark of 97. Three persons received intelligence scores of between 180 and 189, and their school grades averaged 91, and so on across the page.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 266, 267.

Here again we see that there is a real relationship between marks obtained and intelligence scores. The highest woman in intelligence score made the highest scholastic mark, and the lowest in intelligence received the lowest marks. Between these extremes great variations occur.

The differences noted in this study are seen in practically all investigations of the kind. Clear differences are shown in ability and accomplishment between the very low I.Q. and the very high I.Q. We can be reasonably certain that those who are very low would have great difficulty with college work. Those of high I.Q., as far as intellectual ability is concerned, would be able to complete the college program. When we approach the mid-points, those who are near average ability, the situation is not so clear. Persons of average I.Q. do succeed in college and persons of above average I.Q. do fail in college. This means that, although a high I.Q. is ordinarily clear evidence of ability to do college work, it is not a safe guide as a basis of prediction for the large group who wish to go to college and who are in the middle of the range of scores. Several studies show that teachers' marks, teacher ratings, and percentile rank in high school are clearly superior to mental test scores in the prediction of college grades. One investigator goes so far as to say, "the selection of students best fitted to pursue highly specialized degree courses does not appear to be made easier or more reliable by the use of mental tests." [5] Although the data we have do not warrant such an extreme statement, they may well serve as a caution against too great dependence upon such tests as the sole evidence of ability to do college work. Other factors are of great importance.

One of the most valuable studies in the prediction of school success is the ten-year follow-up study by Thorndike.[6] This is the

. . . first comprehensive study in the United States to learn what happens in later years to children who are given vocational guidance. Professor Thorndike and his assistants obtained in 1922 the school

[5] DALE, A. BARBARA, The Use of Mental Tests with University Women Students, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 5:59–79, February, 1935.

[6] THORNDIKE, E. L., and others, "Prediction of Vocational Success," Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publication, New York, 1934.

records of 2,225 children then about fourteen years old, gave them psychological and vocational tests, and followed the educational and industrial careers of 1,807 of them to 1932 to determine the value of each fact of school and test records for vocational prediction or guidance.

The correlations of the intelligence-test scores with grade reached at leaving school, school progress after the time of the tests, scholarship after the time of the tests, and a composite of these, called "educational success," is uniformly high.

These correlations reveal that the score in a test of an hour or less which can be given to a hundred children at once, predicts future educational success better than the progress record of approximately eight years in school and nearly as well as the opinions of past teachers concerning conduct or ability.[7]

This study, it will be noted, used not only mental tests but several other types of tests as well. In spite of the optimistic conclusion of Thorndike, it does not seem safe to rely upon mental tests or any group of tests yet constructed as complete evidence for predicting future school success.

8. *Intelligence Scores and Occupational Success.* Intelligence tests have also frequently been used to predict occupational capacity. Practically all these attempts are based upon the results of the Army Alpha Tests given to our soldiers in the First World War. Each enlisted man filled out a card stating his occupation; he was also given the Army Alpha Test (or the Beta Test, if he was unable to read English with a fair degree of efficiency). From these data were computed the relative intelligence levels of the various occupations. The relationship between the Army Alpha scores and the various occupations is shown in Fig. 18.

This figure is an adaptation of Fig. 12 in Army Mental Tests. The base is the actual Army Alpha scores instead of the letter grades. The equivalent letter grades are given at the bottom, and the approximate mental ages at the top. Each line shows the median, the middle 50 per cent, and the approximate total range of the occupation listed. The total range has been calculated from Table 378 of the *Memoirs of the National Academy of*

7 *Ibid.,* p. 48.
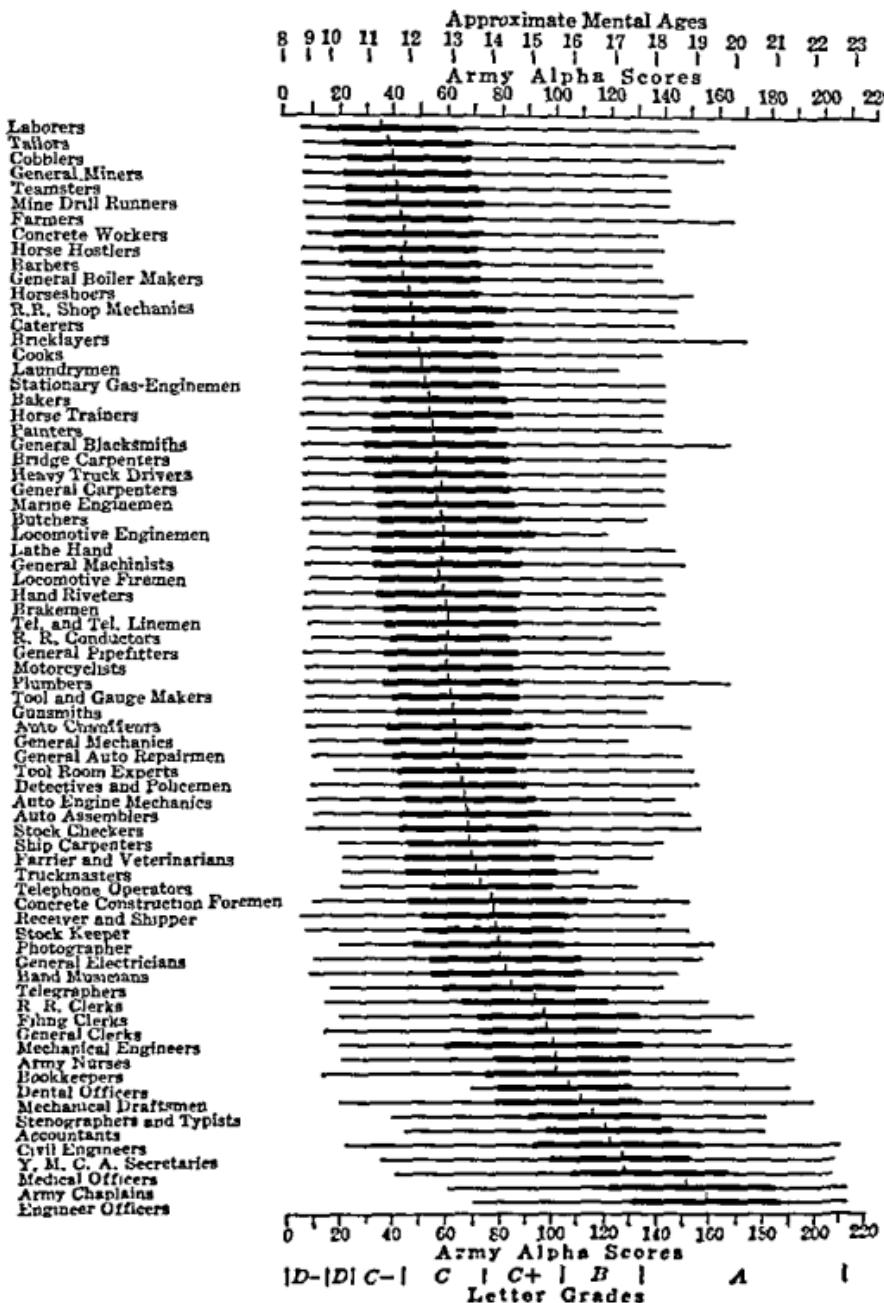
Fig. 18. Occupational intelligence standards.

Sciences.[8] This gives for each occupation the percentages of men receiving the various letter grades from "D−" to "A." We thus have fixed the range of letter grades; the Alpha scores within the letter grades at each end of the range have been roughly calculated. In any case, the error is not great, and the total ranges as given may be taken as representing accurately enough the actual range.

The figure shows clearly the great difference between the medians of the laborer and the engineer officer. Although the difference in the medians of the occupations as arranged is very little in many cases, there is clearly shown a steady progression. On the whole, the relative order of the occupations agrees with our a priori judgment of the intelligence required in each.

It is now possible to compare these scores on the Army Alpha Test in the First World War with those made on the Army General Classification Test in the Second World War. The scores on the two tests are not strictly comparable because of the exclusion in the latter test of officers, women, and nonwhite enlisted personnel. The classifications of occupations are also not exactly the same. In spite of these differences some comparisons are instructive; as in the First World War, a definite hierarchy of occupations is revealed. However, more than one-third of the occupations are not in the same place in the hierarchy in the two lists. The same extreme range of scores for each occupation and the consequent overlapping are shown, with the lower occupations showing the greater range.

How can these be used for guidance purposes? At once several limitations suggest themselves. First, we cannot be sure in the data for the First World War that the occupations named on the cards of soldiers were, in all cases, their real occupations. Numerous cases were found where the soldier reported some other occupation than the one in which he had been engaged; this was often done because the man wanted to learn another occupation. In the second place, we have few data that will enable us to know how successful the man was in his occupation. Some were novices and had had no contact with the occupa-

---

[8] These approximations are taken from "Manual of Instructions for use with Army Alpha Intelligence Tests V, VI, VII, VIII, IX in Public Schools," 7th ed., p. 18, Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kan., 1930.

tion; some were apprentices, others journeymen, and others experts. A limited study [9] was made of certain occupations in which the degree of expertness of the worker was known. In this study, the median scores of experts were usually above those of journeymen, and those of journeymen above those of apprentices. But medians of groups are not satisfactory bases for judging individuals. It is assumed by Fryer and others that the middle 50 per cent of scores in each occupation can be taken to represent the range within which success in that occupation may be predicted. When this range is taken, the relative place of the various occupations is not so clear. The upper quartile of the lowest occupation equals or exceeds the median of forty-three other occupations. The median score of laborers falls within the 50 percentile range of over half the occupations listed. It is, however, when we take the total range that the greater overlapping is seen. The assumption that the success range is the middle 50 per cent is only an assumption at best and cannot in the nature of the case be always true. A glance at Fig. 18 will show that the upper ranges of the lower occupations extend far up into the middle 50 per cent of the highest occupations and that the lower ranges of all except two occupations extend down into the lower quartile of the lowest. Nor are we helped very much by the data showing differences between apprentices, journeymen, and experts. The same overlapping is seen. This may be seen in Fig. 19, which gives for five occupations the medians and the middle 50 percentile range. For purposes of comparison, the total range, the median, and the middle 50 per cent are also given.

The practical difficulty in prognosis may be clearly shown by a comparison of the five occupations in Fig. 19. Suppose that one boy, *X*, has a score of 115 and another boy, *Y*, a score of 50. What occupation is indicated for each? In the first place, while the lines show in a general way the range of scores made by apprentices, journeymen, and experts, we have no data that would indicate whether experts and journeymen who made low scores were more or less successful than those who made high

---

[9] YERKES, ROBERT M., *Psychological Examining in the United States Army, Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences*, 15:826–827, Washington, D.C., 1921.

scores. We might find the most successful expert enginemen all above the median or all below. It is possible that "intelligence," as measured by the Alpha scores, is a handicap in certain occupations. This is more than a conjecture; it has been demonstrated.
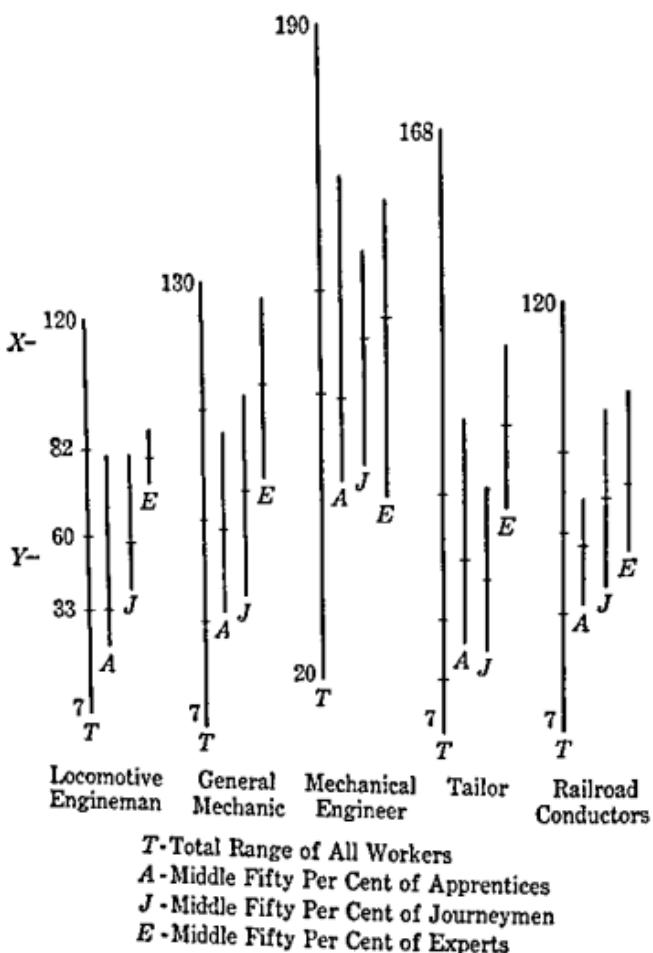
Fig. 19. Comparative scores in Army Alpha of apprentices, journeymen, and experts.

Again, granting that the scores do show occupational capacity, which one of the five occupations should boy *X* choose? Should he choose the vocation of mechanical engineer in which he would rank somewhat above the median or one of the other four in which he would rank near the top? Should boy *Y* choose to be a railroad conductor in which he would rank near the median, or might he succeed as a mechanical engineer? Many other factors

than such scores would need to be considered before a decision could be made intelligently.

We cannot, then, take these results at their face value and use them as the only or the determining factors in occupational choice. They are valuable, but only if used in connection with other supporting and supplementary data. Again, we see, as in other cases where tests are used, that the scores toward either extreme are much more significant than are those toward the average. We may be fairly sure that if a boy attains an intelligence score much below the median of a certain occupation, the probability of his success in that occupation would be remote and it might be wiser for him to choose another unless he shows clearly other outstanding qualifications. The boy who makes a high intelligence score should, possibly, consider first those occupations that rank high in intelligence scores rather than those ranking low, but a high score, in itself, is not a valid ground for avoiding any occupation. In the light of Thorndike's findings, even this guarded statement may be too strong. In the ten-year follow-up of individuals, he found the prediction of vocational careers and vocational success based upon intelligence tests little better than a chance guess.[10]

Intelligence scores are undoubtedly much more valuable as indicating desirable occupational choices, at certain levels, than are the data regarding intelligence levels of occupations. This is true because these scores have a high value in predicting success in school, and school success is a necessary element in the preparation for all higher occupations. If an occupation requires a certain amount of schoolwork as a prerequisite to entrance or to success and if, as we have seen, scores made in intelligence tests have real predictive value for school success, these scores are very useful in indicating occupational choice even though they do this indirectly. For example, suppose a boy wants to become a civil engineer. Ordinarily, the preparation for such a profession demands successful completion of high school and college or school of engineering, with a large amount of work in mathematics. To do the work in school or college requires an intelligence indicated by a score of 100 to 120 in Army Alpha. Hence, even though he might become a successful

10 THORNDIKE, *op. cit.*, pp. 59, 60.

engineer if he could receive the necessary training, it would be useless for him to plan such a career because, according to his score, he would not get through school. In most of the cases, the value of intelligence scores is found on the negative side. They indicate fairly well those who should not attempt to enter a given occupation, but do not indicate the particular occupation that one should enter.

An entirely different approach in the investigation of mental abilities is made by Thurstone.[11] This is the multiple factor analysis. The following mental abilities have received special attention: (1) Verbal-Mental, (2) Word Fluency, (3) Reasoning, (4) Memory, (5) Number, and (6) Space. Several other abilities have been identified. Tests have been constructed for these abilities and a number of studies have been made in the effort to determine the relationship of these abilities to other factors. Some studies have indicated a high degree of relationship; others a relatively low relationship. This approach has real value but it has not yet sufficiently demonstrated its effectiveness in the prediction of success in various areas to warrant its general use.

9. *General Value of Mental Tests.* In general, mental tests are much more valuable for diagnosis and as a basis for counseling than they are for prediction. They do predict fairly well group performance and so are useful in colleges and in industry for admissions officers and personnel officers whose chief concern is to reduce the number of probable failures. A personnel officer can, by the use of these tests, select the group in which most of the good material will be found; but he cannot predict among those individuals who will be successful or those who will fail. Individual prediction still eludes us, and it probably always will. This uncertainty should always be kept in mind by the counselor. The argument so often heard: "These tests are the best instruments for predictions we have and therefore we must use them," is invalid; it is based on the assumption that the counselor must know just what the client's ability is and just what he needs, if adequate help is to be given. Such knowledge is impossible; and even if it were possible its use would violate the fundamental basis of true guidance.

[11] See references at end of chapter.

IV. Aptitude Tests

1. *Meaning of Aptitude.* Closely related to the tests of general intelligence already described and to the ability, or proficiency, tests to be described later are tests designed particularly to discover aptitude.

Unfortunately, when we begin to consider this topic we are again confronted with a confusion of meanings. Some authorities, as Segel, use it in two ways: (1) to indicate special ability, as visual acuity, and (2) as a prognostic measure. Bingham [12] makes a careful analysis of the term and confines its use to prognosis. According to him, aptitude is a measure of the probability of success of an individual, with training, in a certain type of situation—a job, a school, an activity, such as playing the violin, learning a language, etc. It involves (1) ability to acquire the skills, knowledges, attitudes, etc., necessary for success, (2) readiness to acquire, and (3) satisfaction in the job. Satisfaction involves not only an enjoyment of the activities on the job, but the ability and willingness to adjust oneself to the conditions surrounding the job. Thus aptitude is more than potential ability or ability expectancy; it implies fitness for the job. We might call it "success expectancy." Basically, it includes intelligence, abilities of various kinds, and personality factors necessary for success; it is dependent upon a combination of all these.

The methods of estimating aptitude are, in general, the same as those for the estimate of ability expectancy.

This is the gist of the theory of aptitude testing. Measure samples of a person's behavior, and then, by reference to the facts as to what others who have been tested have done subsequently, compute the probabilities that he, too, will behave in a certain way.

To repeat: aptitude tests do not directly measure future accomplishment. They make no such pretense. They measure present performance. Then, *insofar as behavior, past and present, is known to be symptomatic* of future potentialities, the test data supply a means of estimating these potentialities. *The estimate is necessarily in terms of probabilities only.*[13]

[12] BINGHAM, WALTER V., "Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing," pp. 15–23, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

2. *Kinds of Aptitude Tests.* The past twenty years has seen a rapid development of tests of aptitude. Although it is difficult to classify the different types of tests now in use, they may roughly be grouped into three types: (1) The "factor analysis" tests that attempt to reveal primary or "pure" abilities, such as Thurstone's Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities. (2) The "differential" tests, which are batteries of tests, each intended to discover some more or less special aptitude. The USES General Aptitude Test Battery is an example of this type. It contains fifteen tests, ten paper tests, and four apparatus tests. The areas are Intelligence, Verbal Ability, Numerical Ability, Special Abilities, Form Perception, Clerical Perception, Aiming, Motor Speed, Finger Dexterity, and Manual Dexterity. (3) Tests that attempt to reveal aptitudes in smaller areas or specific areas. Among these areas are Subject Matter, Mechanical Aptitude and Dexterity, Clerical Aptitude, Professional Aptitude, Music, Art, and Visual. The most significant developments seem to be in the area of differential aptitude tests. For a list and description of such tests and for discriminating analyses and interpretations the reader should consult the various issues of the *Review of Educational Research*.

3. *Value of Aptitude Tests.* An examination of the tests called "aptitude tests" clearly shows that many of them are not tests of aptitude as defined by Bingham. They test abilities only and some of these not very well. They usually make no attempt to test readiness to acquire the necessary ability nor the various personality and emotional factors that are so important to success on the job. It is very difficult to arrive at any conclusion regarding the accuracy with which prediction may be made on the basis of these tests. Some reasons for this are: (1) Most tests do not include factors important for success and do not consider the relationships between factors, the pattern of factors. (2) Those who seek to evaluate the tests differ regarding the criteria used for success on the job. Some consider only the routine part of the job; others, production rates; and still others, various factors such as interest, effort, personality. (3) The weight attached to various factors in efficiency rating differs with the investigator. (4) Many tests make no attempt to find the extent to which the factors tested are really important on the job.

(5) The range of potential ability of groups tested varies greatly.
(6) The statistical measures used to express the accuracy of prediction are fairly satisfactory for groups but quite unsatisfactory when applied to individuals. It seems evident that the study of aptitudes must, in the future, proceed to a more individual and clinical basis than is true at present and employ methods that will reveal the integration of the various factors rather than be content with a study of each factor separately. Aptitude for any task consists of a constellation of factors. An adequate aptitude test would be one that would measure all the factors necessary for success; this is practically impossible. The determination of aptitude for any job would require tests of specific abilities, personality, general mental ability, observations by skilled observers, and mental and physical records. Emphasis should be given not to weaknesses and to lack of abilities so much as to strengths and to presence of abilities.

The estimates of the accuracy of these tests for purposes of prediction vary greatly with the authority making them. Some claim a very high degree of accuracy, others are more modest and restrained. Taking all the facts into consideration we are probably safe in saying that very few, if any, of these tests will enable us to predict accurately more than sixty individuals out of a hundred. That is, if we based our predictions for individuals on these tests alone, we would be incorrect in four out of ten cases. This is not to say that the tests are not helpful if used with care and in connection with other data. Practically all of them are very useful in group prediction. If registrars or directors of admission of colleges or vocational schools wish to reduce the number of probable failures among those who enter, they would be quite justified in making the selection on the basis of some of these tests; there would most certainly be failures among those admitted, but not so many as with alphabetical selection. There would also be many excluded who would have been successful.

Aptitude tests that are reasonably valid for workers on the job may not be valid for guidance into an occupation; aptitudes cannot adequately be determined on the basis of success in or aptitude for success in the training program.

V. Trade Tests and Tests of Mechanical Skill

1. *Distinction between Purposes of Trade Tests and Aptitude Tests.* So far in this chapter we have been dealing with tests that would help us find whether an individual had or had not the general qualities and characteristics that would enable him to be successful in certain occupations provided he secured the proper training for them. That is, we were trying to find whether, on the basis of general and specific qualities or aptitudes, it would be worth while for him to *begin preparation* for the occupation. It is also important for us to know whether, at any given time, the individual has the skills, the special abilities, and the techniques that will make his success probable in a given occupation. These two functions of prediction are not opposed but supplemental. The former helps in the choice of *training for an occupation;* the latter helps us to determine whether the individual *is ready for the job.* Many of these tests devised to test skills, techniques, and special abilities are also useful, to some extent, in indicating the further training that is desirable and possible and so can be used several years before the occupation is to be entered upon, but their greater usefulness is in determining whether the individual is now ready for the job.

2. *Limitations of Tests of Skill.* The past twenty years has seen a large number of such tests devised, many of which are very helpful. The chief difficulties in devising such tests are: (1) We do not know enough about the specific abilities, skills, techniques, and attitudes that are necessary for success in a given occupation. Job analysis has been of very great assistance, but it has not yet developed a method of analysis that is completely successful. Until we know what to test, we cannot, of course, develop adequate tests. (2) We do not know the various combinations of qualities and characteristics that may make up a complex "aptitude" or "ability." We are now quite sure that success may come from any one of several different combinations of specific abilities or characteristics. (3) We do not yet have tests that are completely effective in disclosing skills, abilities, and specific or general characteristics. (4) Our methods of measuring emotional factors and personality traits necessary for success are as yet very crude and unreliable. (5) The conditions under which such tests are usually given are not "trade" con-

ditions, that is, they are usually given in schools where the surroundings are not exact duplicates of the situations in the job on which the skills will be used. In some cases this is not vital, but in others the difference in the situations is so great that skill may be manifested when the test is given but may not be shown under the different circumstances of the job.

It is not the function of this discussion to describe in detail the various tests devised and to show their exact application to the problem of guidance. These tests are, for the most part, quite technical and should be administered and analyzed by experts. A general description of various types of such tests is sufficient for our present purpose. For a more intensive treatment of these tests the reader is referred to the list of references at the close of the chapter.

3. *Trade Tests.* Trade tests are now used extensively in almost every trade. They are especially valuable whenever it is necessary to distribute groups quickly into different trades. This is most clearly seen in the problems involved in the rapid induction of men into the Army. A modern army is not simply a collection of fighters; it is made up of skilled workmen in almost every kind of occupation—engineers, carpenters, stone masons, plumbers, horseshoers, auto-repair men, machinists, mechanics, cooks, barbers, and a host of other diverse occupations. In an army composed of thousands of men hastily brought together from all parts of the country and from all sorts of conditions, it is absolutely necessary to select skilled workers in all these occupations. Time cannot be wasted in preparing men for jobs; men who already have the necessary skills must be selected quickly. It was largely out of such conditions that trade tests developed. They were designed to select out as quickly as possible men who had the qualifications necessary for immediate success in various jobs. They consisted, in general, of information tests and performance tests. Information tests were designed to find what the individual knew. They were usually of two kinds: (1) oral or verbal tests and (2) picture tests. In the former, names of machines and parts of machines, of tools, processes, etc., were given and questions asked concerning each. In the latter, pictures of these machines, tools, etc., were presented and questions were asked designed to reveal the knowledge of the individual or his acquaintance with the tool or machine. The performance

tests tested the individual's ability to do the job itself. Each type of performance test was so arranged as to distinguish between the novice, the apprentice, the journeyman, and the master workman. Tests of this kind have been developed in many occupations. Among them are those of the stenographer, typist, tool-maker, gunsmith, patternmaker, carpenter, plumber, lathe operator, sheet-metal worker, machine operator, clerk, motorman, printer, and many others. All these tests are by no means entirely successful, but all are helpful and give promise of further development to a point where they can be largely relied upon for the selection of applicants, when the important thing is to select those who possess the skill requisite for success in the job applied for. It should be remembered that most of these tests recognize that the ability to perform the activities of the job is a complex one and involves many specific abilities. Consequently, most of the tests are batteries of more or less simple subtests and so are designed to test various abilities. The score is a composite score made up of the sum of the scores of the component tests.

VI. Summary

In spite of the fact that our present testing program must be considered as incomplete and entirely inadequate to meet our needs, it is the most encouraging part of the entire educational situation. We see the need of actual objective measurement of achievement, abilities, and aptitudes and are embarked upon the development of such a program. The methods employed are usually scientific, and for the most part there is frank recognition of the limitations of the tests so far constructed. With all their limitations they are invaluable instruments in guidance. No guidance worker can afford to neglect them.

REFERENCES

The literature on tests is so voluminous that general reference books only will be listed here. Bibliographies on specific tests will be found in Buros, reference 3, and in the various numbers of the *Review of Educational Research*, reference 1.

1. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION: *Review of Educational Research*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.
"Methods of Research and Appraisal in Education," Vol. 4, No. 1, February, 1934; Vol. 9, No. 5, December, 1939; Vol. 18, No. 5, December, 1948.

"Psychological Tests and Their Uses," Vol. 2, No. 3, June, 1932, and No. 4, October, 1932; Vol. 5, No. 3, June, 1935; Vol. 8, No. 3, June, 1938; Vol. 11, No. 16, February, 1941; Vol. 14, No. 1, February, 1944; Vol. 22, No. 1, February, 1947; Vol. 20, No. 1, February, 1940.

"Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling," Vol. 3, No. 3, June, 1933; Vol. 6, No. 2, April, 1936; Vol. 9, No. 2, April, 1939; Vol. 12, No. 1, February, 1942; Vol. 15, No. 2, April, 1945; Vol. 18, No. 2, April, 1948.

"Teacher Personnel," Vol. 1, No. 2, April, 1931; Vol. 4, No. 3, June, 1934; Vol. 7, No. 3, June, 1937; Vol. 10, No. 3, June, 1940; Vol. 13, No. 3, June, 1943; Vol. 16, No. 3, June, 1946; Vol. 19, No. 3, June, 1949. The various issues of the *Review of Educational Research* are of great value for the counselor in their careful and usually unprejudiced analysis and evaluation of new testing materials. Tests as such are not described, but current uses of the tests are noted and research studies of their validity and general value are reported.

2. BINGHAM, W. V.: "Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937. The standard work on aptitude testing. A careful analysis of aptitudes and a discriminating discussion of the various types of test now in use.

3. BUROS, OSCAR K., editor: "The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook," Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, N.J., 1949. Consists of "evaluative reviews by able test technicians, subject matter specialists, and psychologists, which will assist test users in making more discriminating selections from among the hundreds of tests on the market." It also contains a selected list of books on research and statistical methods, a description of regional testing programs, an index of periodicals dealing with tests, and a publisher's directory. A very valuable compilation.

4. CRONBACH, LEE J.: "Essentials of Psychological Testing," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Discussion of selection, administration, and interpretation of psychological tests.

5. DARLEY, JOHN G.: "Testing and Counseling in the High School Guidance Program," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1950.

6. DONAHUE, WILMA T., CLYDE H. COOMAS, and M. W. ROBERT: "The Measurement of Student Adjustment and Achievement," University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1949. Covers techniques for the study of groups and individuals.

7. DVORAK, BEATRICE J.: The New United States Employment Service General Aptitude Test Battery, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 31:372–376, August, 1947. A good description of this test.

8. EURICH, ALVIN C., and C. GILBERT WRENN: "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs," in "Guidance in Educational Institutions," Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chap. 2, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938. A brief but stimulating treatment of the general methods of student appraisal and of the value of such methods for guidance.

9. FROELICH, CLIFFORD E.: "Guidance Testing," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1948. Prepared under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Education.

10. GREENE, HARRY A., and ALBERT N. JORGENSEN: "The Use and Interpretation of High School Tests," Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1938. A systematic handbook for those who need a practical and easily understood discussion of fundamental ideas and tools of measurement in secondary education.

11. ROTHNEY, JOHN, and BERT ROENS: "Counseling the Individual Student," William Sloane Associates, New York, 1949. Points out the dangers of any short-cut methods of appraising or understanding the individual. Warns against the indiscriminate use of tests and interest inventories.

12. STEWART, NAOMI: A.G.C.T. Scores of Army Personnel Grouped by Occupations, *Occupations*, 26:5–41, October, 1947. Describes the distribution of scores by occupations.

13. STODDARD, GEORGE D.: "The Meaning of Intelligence," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1943. The formulation of a new definition of intelligence, the limitations of present methods of testing, and the criticism of the concept of the I.Q., especially of its constancy, make this book very stimulating and useful.

14. STUDENT COUNSELING BUREAU: "The Counseling and Guidance Use of Test Scores," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949. A manual for teachers in the use and interpretation of tests.

15. SUPER, DONALD E.: "Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Describes and evaluates tests and illustrates their application.

16. THORNDIKE, ROBERT L.: "Personnel Selection; Test and Measurement Techniques," John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949. Describes the use of tests for selection and classification of personnel in various types of service.

17. THURSTONE, LOUIS L.: Primary Abilities, *Occupations*, 27:527–529, May, 1949. A clear statement of the types of abilities tested.

18. THURSTONE, LOUIS L., and THELMA G. THURSTONE: "Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1943. A more detailed description of the tests.

19. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.: "Techniques of Guidance," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1945. Especially helpful discussion of the use and interpretation of tests.

20. U.S. WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE, PERSONNEL RESEARCH SECTION (STAFF): The Army General Classification Test, *Psychological Bulletin*, 42:760–768, December, 1945. A general description of the test and its uses in the Second World War.

21. U.S. WAR DEPARTMENT, DIVISION OF PSYCHOLOGY, SURGEON GENERAL'S OFFICE: "Army Mental Tests," U.S. War Department, Washington, D.C., 1918. Gives data and graphs showing the relationship between scores on Army Alpha and Beta Tests and the occupations of drafted men in the First World War.

22. YERKES, ROBERT M.: Psychological Examining in the United States Army, *Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 15. Washington, D.C., 1921. A complete report of testing in the U.S. Army and a helpful compilation and comparison of results in the First World War.

PERSONALITY ESTIMATES AND INTEREST INVENTORIES

In the discussion of aptitudes in Chap. VIII it was seen that estimates of the probability of success in any line of work must take into consideration other factors than ability to do the various kinds of operations required by the job. Although skills and abilities will always be important, it is becoming apparent that other factors profoundly affect success in occupational life, in social situations, and in personal relations with others. Some of these factors, although not easily separable, may be roughly grouped under personality factors and interests. In this chapter, we shall consider some of the more important elements that may properly be grouped under these headings and the methods used to estimate them.

I. Personality

1. *Meaning of Personality.* The term "personality" is used in so many different ways that it may be well to discuss its meaning before attempting any description of its manifestations. In general, personality is the same as individuality; it is what makes one an individual, what sets him off from others. From one point of view, it consists of all of the qualities, the physical and mental characteristics, the abilities, skills, and interests that he "has" or the combination of all of these. From another point of view, personality is the structure and pattern of the total behavior of the individual. Each of these statements would include all factors discussed in this chapter. In fact, it is difficult, if not impossible, to separate them, but we usually restrict the term to those characteristics or to that behavior that is most important in determining the relationship of an individual to other people. It is primarily a social concept.

These statements of the meaning of personality reveal two different or somewhat divergent points of view. On the one

hand, personality is thought of as something an individual has somewhere within himself, as a result of which he acts in certain ways, he impresses others, he adjusts himself. We say the glamorous actress *has* personality; the ineffective teacher *lacks* personality. One does not always *show* his personality to others; his true personality is *revealed* only when conditions are favorable. He may *seem* cross, crabbed, and miserly to his business associates because he behaves that way in his office, but when he gets home with his family he *shows* that he *really is* genial, sympathetic, and generous. As opposed to this, it is said that one does not *possess* personality as one does a garment; it is not something that is within one; it is his behavior, how he acts, or even how he affects and impresses others; it is the total pattern of his behavior or the total effect he has upon others. His cross and crabbed behavior in business is just as much a part of his personality as is his behavior at home.

From the first point of view, motives, ideals, goals are of supreme importance as a part of personality. From the second point of view they are not a part of personality except as they *are known* to others and thus affect others. They are, undoubtedly, very important factors in their influence on *future personality.* The ideal of the Great Stone Face was the chief element that finally changed the wistful, undeveloped boy into the strong and well-developed man but, from the second point of view, the ideal was not a part of his personality until it began to be shown in his conduct. Each of these points of view has its value, but for general purposes it makes little difference which one we take, for the only means we have of estimating the personality of an individual is by the way he behaves and impresses others. The second point of view is the one taken by the behaviorist and by those who are interested primarily in objective measurements. In the succeeding discussion this point of view will be stressed, but motives, ideals, and goals, as far as they may be discovered, are included among the factors that are important for the prediction of future personality. In simple terms, from the second point of view, personality consists of the following:

1. The way you look.
2. The way you dress.
3. The way you talk.
4. The way you walk.

5. The way you act.
6. The skill with which you do things.
7. Your health.

2. Specific vs. General Nature of Personality Traits. In discussing the personality of an individual we usually employ the terms "traits" or "character traits." We seem to infer that they are general traits or general modes of behavior that characterize the behavior of the individual in all situations. We may well question the accuracy of this inference. We know that a trait such as initiative is manifested in a particular situation; will it also be shown in another situation rather unlike the first? Are people tactful in all situations? Are they completely trustworthy? Are they always cooperative? We are at once on debatable ground. We are very sure that few, if any, persons "manifest" such personality "traits" equally in all situations.

What do we mean by an accurate man, a sympathetic woman, a person who is cooperative? An accurate man is one who in certain situations, where it is worth while to be accurate, *is* accurate. This may be in mathematical calculations where you can depend upon his calculations, or it may be in that what facts he knows, he really knows. We can rely upon the accuracy of the information he possesses. We obviously do not mean that every time he estimates distances he is absolutely accurate to the fraction of an inch, or that his language is always exact. When he gives us the time of day he does not always say, "It is *now* twelve minutes and thirty-one seconds after nine o'clock." By the time he had said it, the time would have changed. He merely *is* accurate in certain situations where it is desirable to be accurate; he also probably has the attitude of mind that prompts him to be exact when it *is* desirable to be exact. So a sympathetic woman is not one who is, *in all cases,* sympathetic, but in situations where this *is* worth while, not merely to herself but to others. There are some situations where sympathy seriously interferes with efficiency. In certain phases of social case work, sympathy is a liability rather than an asset and seriously interferes with obtaining accurate data.

It is not always wise to be cooperative. There are times when cooperation is harmful. In all these cases judgment and discrimination in analyzing situations are necessary before accuracy, tact, sympathy, or cooperation can wisely be shown. We may also say that a person who behaves tactfully in j and k and l and

m and n situations, where such a trait is useful, "has" this trait to a greater degree or more generally than one who shows it in k situation only; or that tactful behavior is more characteristic of him. We say he is a more tactful person. We would expect him to show tact in other situations where tact is useful. The chances that he will act in a tactful way are much greater than they are in the case of the person who shows tact in only one situation.

It is a fallacy to assume that a mode of behavior seen in one situation is really characteristic of the individual in all situations. There are among individuals marked differences in the degree of integration of behavior. In some the personality pattern is highly unified; their conduct is consistent and persistent, it has a pervasive quality that permits fairly accurate prediction of their behavior. In others behavior is quite inconsistent or seems inconsistent; there seems to be no clearly integrated pattern. Most individuals fall between these two extremes and may have several centers of organization. However, behavior that seems inconsistent or fathomless may, when the underlying goals or motives are found, really be quite consistent.

Since the purpose of estimating personality is to predict what the individual will do in certain situations, this question of the degree of specificity or universality of behavior becomes very important. Many so-called "measurements" of personality traits are based upon the fallacy of generality of response. It is assumed that if a person responds in a certain way to a test situation we can accurately predict what his response will be in other situations. In describing the personality traits of an individual we should be careful to describe the situation or type of situation in which the type of behavior is observed. "He is a man who always dominates or tries to dominate"; "He is a man who tries to dominate those who are inferior to him but who is very submissive in the presence of superiors"; "She is a teacher who initiates plans, coordinates activities, stimulates pupils in the third grade, but who is shy, silent, and unresponsive in faculty meetings and with other teachers."

3. *Sources of Personality.* Many persons seem to believe that personality is something that is born in one and that, therefore, it cannot be changed; all we can do is to accept it and make the most of what we have. It is unquestionably true that personality, like all physical and mental characteristics, is partly the result

of heredity; at least, there are marked differences in the behavior of very young children. It is easier for some to be tactful and sympathetic than for others; some show dominating traits very early while others are submissive. But it is also true that environment exerts a profound influence. What a person is at any given time is the result of the interaction of heredity and environment. We can be sure of this, that personality can be changed; it is definitely influenced by education and training. One can learn to be tactful and considerate; he can be made over or make himself over, within limits. No one can excuse his unsocial behavior, his brutal bluntness by saying, "That is the way I am; I was born that way. You will just have to take me as I am." Many studies of children seem to take for granted that personality traits seen in children are symptomatic of what will be found in later life; that we can predict with a high degree of accuracy what their personality as an adult will be. If that be true, it is a most damning criticism of our methods of teaching and our entire system of education. It means that we have not yet begun to see the importance of the development of personality and have discovered no adequate methods of improving it.

It is of course true that personality follows the pattern of all behavior and, as we grow older, tends to become channelized and is more difficult to change. That it can be changed even in adults is evidenced by the endless hours and the millions of dollars spent to produce the glamour girls of Hollywood, the entrancing models of Fifth Avenue.

4. Importance of Personality. The importance of personality in life can hardly be overestimated. The increasing recognition of the personal and commercial value of desirable personality traits is seen in the space given to discussions of personality in all the popular magazines of the day. We are told that "B.O.," "smoker's hack," "stenographer's spread," "five o'clock shadow," "gaposis," "that all-gone feeling," "dishpan hands," "falling hair," "the strident voice," and a dozen other factors will interfere with success; and it is true, they will. All of these are important elements in personality. Getting a job, keeping it, and promotion are all clearly affected by personality traits. Some studies have shown that as much as 80 per cent of first jobs and 75 per cent of promotions were due primarily to personality qualities. Another study showed that 90 per cent of dismissals were due not to lack of skills but to personality factors, mostly lack of social

adjustment and emotional instability. Terman found in his twenty years' study of 1,000 high-ability children that social adjustment, emotional stability, and drive were much more important factors than intelligence in scholastic achievement in secondary school and college and in success in after-school life. Hollywood considers it of so much importance that hours and days of time and millions of dollars are spent every year on the changing of appearance, voice, and behavior, so that the actor may be more appealing. Schools for the development of desirable personality traits have sprung up in every important city. They teach you to walk, to talk, to dress: in general, to behave in such a way as to be attractive and to help you sell your services. Philadelphia has organized two courses for teachers to assist them in developing certain desirable personality traits: (1) "Charm School and Personality Development" and (2) "Voice as an Important Asset in Teaching." It seems evident that improvement in these traits should result in more effective teaching. There may be danger that too much attention is being given to the externals of appearance and too little to the inner springs of conduct, but no one can doubt the great importance of personality elements in life.

II. PERSONALITY ESTIMATES

1. *Estimates of Personality.* The recognition of the importance of personality has resulted in much experimentation in the attempt to develop some adequate method of appraisal or some techniques that would be satisfactory in distinguishing between types of personality traits. The literature in this field is very extensive. For brief accounts of techniques used and for their appraisal the reader is referred to the numbers of the *Review of Educational Research* listed in the references at the close of Chap. VIII. In discussing methods of finding the personality of individuals the term "measurement" is not appropriate for the following reasons: (1) There is nothing approximating a zero point for reference. (2) There is no equality of units. (3) There is no agreement on the basic terms used. (4) There are no satisfactory measuring instruments. The best we can do is to attempt some sort of estimate of the presence or absence of certain traits and some general description of the patterns of behavior. It is interesting to note that the general methods

used in estimating personality are the same as those that have been used for centuries. These are (1) questioning others about the individual, (2) questioning the individual, and (3) observation of the individual by trained observers.

2. *Questioning Others about the Individual.* This is one of the oldest forms of estimating personality. Examples of this method are found in teachers' rating cards, recommendations of teachers and applicants for other jobs, school report cards, applications for admission to college or other types of institutions such as commercial schools, art schools, and schools of nursing. In all these forms other things than personality as defined are usually included, but the personality items are considered to be very important. They are also used to some extent in the Army and Navy for indicating fitness for promotion and for fitness for group participation. They range from words or descriptions indicating desirable or undesirable traits to definite weighted scales for various items. They vary from small cards with short lists of traits, to long, involved lists covering several pages and requiring extensive observation of the individual. Some of these might well be classified under the third heading: Observation of the Individual by Trained Observers. The usual form of school report cards includes from five to ten items. One has twenty-five items under Aspects of Character, and twenty-five under Aspects of Personality. The most common items are (1) cooperation, (2) initiative, (3) reliability, (4) promptness, (5) neatness or orderliness. Sometimes the items are grouped under certain heads as Social Attitudes and Work Attitudes, or Traits Affecting Behavior, Traits Affecting Learning, and Traits Affecting Social Efficiency. One blank has eight traits under each classification. In school reports there are certain tendencies in methods of securing data on personality traits that are worthy of note: (1) descriptions of the traits listed, (2) divisions or degrees of three or five for each rating, (3) cumulative record in order to show growth or change, (4) reports from teachers requiring the record of only those traits that are very evident to them; rating for every pupil is not demanded.

Several interesting types of personality report are worthy of more detailed description. One of these is the Personality Record of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals, reproduced on pages 244 and 245. This record explains itself for

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION [1]
(Experimental Form)

Last name _____ First _____ Middle _____   School _____

The report describes the characteristic behavior of the students in a number of important areas. It should not be interpreted as a rating. Instead one should read the descriptions and attempt to get from them an understanding of the person described, and of his fitness for particular opportunities and understandings. A

Directions:

(1) The initials of subject or activity fields are used in the recording in order to identify the relations between the observers and the student. A complete key at the top of the folded over sheet.

(2) The spaces from left to right, being chronological, show the changes or continuity in behavior during the period covered by the record.

(3) While agreements in description may show a student's permanence in behavior, they may not be more important than an isolated judgment, which often has great significance because of a better basis for judgment, or because it indicates a response to some particular condition, field, or personality.

	Type	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
SOCIAL CONCERN							
Generally Concerned: Shows an altruistic and general social concern and interprets this in action to the extent of his abilities and opportunities	1						
Selectively Concerned: Shows concern by attitude and action about certain social conditions but seems unable to appreciate the importance of other such problems	2						
Personal: Is not strongly concerned about the welfare of others and responds to social problems only when he recognises some intimate personal relationship to the problem or group in question	3						
Inactive: Seems aware of social problems, and may profess concern about them, but does nothing	4						
Unconcerned: Does not show any genuine concern for the common good	5						
EMOTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS							
To Ideas: Is emotionally stirred by becoming aware of challenging ideas	1						
To Difficulty: Responds emotionally to a situation or problem challenging to him because of the possibility of overcoming difficulties	2						
To Ideals: Responds emotionally to what is characterised primarily by its personal or social idealism	3						
To Beauty: Responds emotionally to beauty as found in nature and the arts	4						
To Order: Responds emotionally to perfection of functioning as it is seen in organization, mechanical operation or logical completeness	5						

[1] Used by special permission of the publisher.

A markedly high (H) or low (L) degree of the following behavior characteristics is shown by recordings in the appropriate spaces. No implication is assumed as to desirability or undesirability for the particular individual. Any qualifications or further comment should appear under General Comment.

			Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Physical Energy	Behavior in relation to vigor and endurance	H						
		L						
Assurance	Ability to meet situations and people easily	H						
		L						
Self-reliance	The habit of depending on one's self rather than on others	H						
		L						
Emotional Control	Ability to retain poise and self-control	H						
		L						
		H						
		L						

Use H (high), U (usual for age), or L (low) to indicate the success this student has had in dealing with

Abstract ideas and symbols...............
People...............
Planning and management...............
Things and manipulation...............

General Comment: The following space is to be used for specific instances of behavior and for additional information that amplifies and synthesizes the description of the student.

the most part. It will be seen that seven general traits are given and five spaces allotted for checking each trait and that each of the five divisions or spaces is described by appropriate words or phrases. It is also interesting to note that on the permanent record both the modal behavior and the variations in teacher rating are noted. This gives a much more complete and accurate picture than the modal rating alone, for it often shows variation in behavior with different teachers.

The Behavior Description of the Reports and Records Committee of the Progressive Education Association is an elaborate and comprehensive folder including record forms for each teacher, a permanent cumulative folder for each pupil covering the grades 7 to 12, and a manual of descriptions and directions for each teacher. The following headings of general types of behavior or traits are included: (1) Responsibility, Dependability, (2) Creativeness and Imagination, (3) Influence, (4) Inquiring Mind, (5) Open-mindedness, (6) Power and Habit of Analysis, the Habit of Reaching Conclusions on the Basis of Valid Evidence, (7) Social Concern, (8) Emotional Responsiveness, (9) Serious Purpose, (10) Social Adjustability, (11) Work Habits, (12) Physical Energy, (13) Assurance, (14) Self-reliance, (15) Emotional Control. In order to show the general features of the blank the heading and several complete items are given on pages 204 and 205.

The code numbers under Type are for use in recording on the permanent record of the pupil.

Several points regarding this blank should be noted: (1) It is called a "Behavior Description" and not a "personality rating." (2) It is not intended to be a scale in any sense; it is merely a description of behavior observed by each teacher who has had contact with the pupil. (3) The behavior of the pupil is not to be classified as this or that; differences in behavior or in descriptions of behavior are considered to have great significance, and there is an opportunity for each teacher to record second or third judgments. (4) Each item or group is carefully described—briefly on the blank and more carefully in the Manual. (5) No application is assumed of the desirability or undesirability of the behavior characteristic; it is merely recorded as a thing observed. Interpretations are to be made only in the light of the entire description. This type of folder is highly to be commended and

should find more general use in both elementary and secondary schools.

Another interesting type of personality report is that formulated by the National League of Nursing Education. It is an adaptation of the Personality Report prepared by the American Council on Education. A part of the heading and two groups of traits or behavior characteristics or abilities are given on page 208.

The other headings are

B. Does she need constant prodding or does she go ahead with her work without being told?
C. Can she lead and get others to do what she wishes?

Six check divisions are included under each head. The most interesting part of the blank is the space for recording the circumstances or situations upon which the judgment is based.

A very interesting collection of personality blanks is found in a compilation made by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Forms Used in Employing and Training College Graduates. These forms vary in complexity. The comparatively simple one of Armour and Company has five general items: (1) Personal Qualities, (2) Working Qualities, (3) Physical Qualities, (4) Intelligence, (5) Leadership. The Eastman Kodak Company has eight general headings, while the National City Bank of New York has thirteen. A company manufacturing grocery specialties (not named) has a plan of unusual interest. There is a *personality report containing five headings in the form of questions.* (1) How are you and others affected by his appearance and manner? (2) Does he need constant prodding or does he go ahead without being told? (3) Does he get others to do what he wishes? (4) How does he control his emotions? (5) Has he a program with definite purposes in terms of which he distributes his time and energy? Each heading has from six to eight divisions for checking. Each one who reports is asked to record the "instance that will support the judgment." To follow up the progress of newly employed college men an elaborate Rating Scale for Development of Men is employed. This includes six headings indicating (1) Preparation, (2) Leadership, (3) Ability to Organize His Work, (4) Ability to Train His Men, (5) Cooperation, (6) Morals and General Standards of

PERSONALITY REPORT[1]

School of Nursing.....................................
Address..
Name of Applicant....................................

Please return this form directly to the Director of the School of Nursing.

Selection and guidance of students are based on scholastic records of achievement, health, and other factual records. Personality is especially important in nursing. You will greatly assist both the applicant and the School of Nursing if you will rate her with respect to each question by placing a check mark in the square which represents your evaluation of her. If you have had no opportunity to observe the applicant with respect to a given characteristic, please place a check mark in the square opposite the line "No opportunity to observe."

In the rectangle to the right of each indicated judgment, describe briefly and concretely significant performances and attitudes which support your judgment and which you yourself have observed.

A. How are others affected by her appearance, voice and manner?	☐ Seek her ☐ Like her ☐ Indifferent to her ☐ Tolerate her ☐ Avoid her ☐ No opportunity to observe	Please record here instances that support your judgment
D. What kind of emotional behavior does she show?	☐ Unusual balance of responsiveness and control of emotions ☐ Well balanced ☐ Usually well balanced ☐ Tends to be overemotional—repressed or hilarious ☐ Too easily moved to anger or depression ☐ No opportunity to observe	Please record here instances that support your judgment
E. How does she adjust to changing situations?	☐ Adjusts readily to all situations ☐ Adjusts to most situations with little difficulty ☐ Probably average in ability to adjust ☐ Adjusts slowly and only fairly well ☐ Does not adjust to changes ☐ No opportunity to observe	Please record here instances that support your judgment

[1] *Used by special permission of the National League of Nursing Education.*

Conduct. Each group has five divisions or categories, fully explained, for recording judgments.

Attention should also be called to the Description of Behavior on the 1941 revision of the American Council on Education Cumulative Record Card for Junior and Senior High Schools. The categories are largely the same as those used on the other blanks, but the descriptions of types of behavior are more detailed and there are spaces for summarization as well as for additional comments on behavior. The practical Lansdowne blank reproduced on pages 246 to 249 includes excellent and compact forms of behavior record. It also shows how the ratings or descriptions are given.

The value of the method of appraisal of the individual by the recorded judgment or observation of others is, in general, dependent upon the accuracy and reliability of the observer. Every effort should be made to improve the ability of teachers in this respect. This may be done by suggestions regarding the times and methods of making observations, by clear statements of the meaning of categories, and by conferences in which the entire question of personality characteristics, behavior patterns, and methods of recording observations is discussed. Even when the observations by teachers are reasonably well made and when records are well organized, the final interpretation should be made by persons especially qualified by training and experience. So much depends upon an understanding of the interrelationship between various factors of the patterns of behavior, that special competencies are needed for the interpretation of the different items included in the observations.

3. *Questioning the Individual about Himself.* This is the method used in nearly all the so-called "personality" tests and inventories. Here are also to be found most of the factor analysis approaches to the problem. The method of attack varies. Some make use of direct questions involving the judgment of the individual regarding the presence or absence of a given trait; some use very indirect questions in which the individual reveals or is supposed to reveal his characteristics without being conscious that he is being asked about them; still others describe a hypothetical situation and ask the individual how he would react to it. Nearly all these tests are in the form of written questions to be answered by the individual; some are self-rating exercises.

Some tests attempt to cover a wide range of characteristics while others confine themselves to one or two groups like personal and social adjustments or ascendency and submission. In the Bernreuter Test and the California Test, and most of the other tests now on the market, the individual is asked many questions regarding the way he feels or reacts in certain situations such as "Are you shy?" "Do you daydream frequently?" "Do you like to be alone?" "Are you often lonely?" "Do you lack self-confidence?" "Are your classmates usually friendly to you?" "Do you have many friends rather than just a few?" The answer to each of these questions is supposed to reveal certain traits or characteristics. Such classifications as "introvert—extrovert," "dominant—submissive," "emotionality," are often used. Some attempt to identify five factors: (1) S, social introversion, (2) T, thinking introversion, (3) D, depression, (4) C, cycloid tendencies, (5) R, rhathymia, or happy-go-lucky disposition. On the basis of similar questions Link developed a P.Q., or personality quotient, which has been widely used.

The Pressey X-O tests are especially designed to disguise the purpose of the inquiry from the pupil. Lists of words and situations are given and the pupil is asked to underline every word or situation he dislikes for any reason; other lists are given for recording his likes. From these reactions certain conclusions are made regarding characteristics or traits of the person examined.

In the same category may be mentioned Bell's Adjustment Inventory, the Minnesota Inventory of Social Attitudes, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale, the Guilford-Martin Inventory, and many others.

Closely related to these methods and devices are the sociometric techniques designed to reveal preferences, likes, dislikes, and other attitudes among members of a group. These often disclose important and unexpected personality traits and social attitudes.

It is very difficult to determine the value for guidance of these types of exercise; some place very high value upon them while others consider them of little value. Characteristic statements criticizing them are the following: "Investigations fairly consistently confirm the low worth of the most widely publicized

instruments." "The Bernreuter Personality Inventory offers little aid in the isolation of personality problems." "The Bernreuter Inventory has little value in predicting achievement in the various subjects." "The conditions surrounding the test at any given time influence the answers." "Results are very difficult to interpret and the interpretation varies with the interpreter." Burnham and Crawford, using a pair of dice as a subject, reported that "ten testings revealed that the dice (*i.e.*, chance scores) were emotionally maladjusted, introverted, and (on the Strong Interest Test) possessed interests like a journalist or a Boy Scout leader." [1]

As opposed to these criticisms, many have found fairly high correlations between the results of the tests and what they were supposed to measure or reveal. In some cases the difference of opinion regarding the value of the "tests" is due to differences of opinion between the author of the "test" and the critic concerning the purpose or objective of the "test." The amusing experiment with the dice is quite inconclusive because it is based on the mistaken notion that pupils who take the test answer at random, *i.e.*, behave as the dice do, which, of course, is not true. On the basis of present investigations we are warranted in the following conclusions regarding the tests that use the self-report or subject-answering method: (1) They do not have the validity often claimed for them by their authors; (2) they do not give us an adequate picture of the personality traits of the individual; (3) they do overemphasize the factor analysis concept and present a one-sided view of the individual; (4) they are unsafe, in the hands of the untrained teacher, as an instrument of determining personality; (5) they are useful, if interpreted intelligently, as one of several methods by which we secure responses of individuals. Although there are some dangers in their use, they are often an effective method of stimulating pupils to appraise themselves and to think more carefully about their assets and liabilities.

4. *Methods of Observation.* These are of two kinds: (1) direct observation of individuals in natural situations and (2) observations in more or less laboratory or test conditions. Some ingenious experiments have been made in the direct ob-

[1] WATSON, GOODWIN, Personality and Character Measurement, *Review of Educational Research*, 8:269-291.

servation of behavior of children. These range from observation of the behavior in the waiting room of a guidance clinic to observation of group action, cooperation, and initiative in school conditions, and recording the gait, speech, gestures, words, and other forms of expression of individuals in normal situations. The observation of how the individual meets new and difficult situations is also advocated, but satisfactory techniques have not yet been developed. The chief difficulty in the direct method of observation is that encountered in attempting to make quick and accurate observations in such a way as to preserve the naturalness and spontaneity of the responses. It is possible that we may be able to utilize one-way vision glass to good advantage; or even better, the sound motion picture if it can be arranged in such a way as to avoid the danger of the child's knowing that he is being observed.

These methods, while they hold considerable promise, have not yet been perfected to the point where they can be depended upon. They need very careful interpretation by trained workers; they have the advantage of observing the child in action and do provide a means of estimating the total personality of the individual. This method approaches in several ways the method used in the Behavior Description of the Progressive Education Association and described on pages 204 and 205. Such an anecdotal behavior journal continued over a sufficiently long period would be an invaluable source of information about the personality pattern of the individual.

The laboratory type of observational method is illustrated by the Rorschach Ink Blot Test, which is widely used, the Thematic Apperception Test, and the Schwartz Social Situation Test. With these may be classed the use of hand painting, play techniques, free construction, and other more or less controlled exercises. Graphology, or the study of handwriting, is still advocated by some, and interesting experiments are being conducted to determine its usefulness in interpreting personality characteristics. This is not to be confused with its use, as described on pages 51 to 52, for occupational prediction or character analysis. This method also observes the child in action and, although this observation is confined to a somewhat narrow range of activities and under conditions that are not entirely normal, it does in a measure observe the total individual as he functions in action.

More even than the types of instruments previously described, the direct observation methods necessitate trained and skilled observers for correct interpretations of results. They are much more effective in revealing pathological conditions than for the determination of personality traits of normal children. Although the methods of direct and indirect observation are much more difficult than the questionnaire methods and require more expert interpretation, they give greater promise because they take the total individual into consideration and observe the pattern of his behavior with the interrelations between various traits in a situation that is more or less normal.

5. *Value of Personality Estimates.* Personality estimates, with all their imperfections, are very valuable in any plan of guidance. They are probably more valuable in helping the individual to eliminate socially undesirable traits and to develop behavior that will be generally useful than in indicating his fitness for particular types of occupations. Nearly all of the so-called "personality" tests have developed from the medical or psychiatric approach and are most effective in revealing pathological cases that need treatment. Still more than the mental tests, the individuals who are on the extremes of the range are the ones for whom the tests are significant. So far none of the tests or estimates have been validated with reference to success in types of vocation. However, although we cannot depend upon any one of the tests or estimates as an indication of fitness for a particular occupation, we do know that certain traits seriously impair and others definitely assist in most situations involving relations with other people.

Much harm has been done by inexperienced persons who label certain traits "good" and other traits "bad." Few, if any, traits are always harmful or always useful; they are harmful in certain situations and useful in others. Emphasis should be placed upon the situation or circumstance in which the behavior is observed and upon finding what the behavior pattern is, not on labeling it either good or bad.

The most effective method of personality study is a combination of the different methods described, with the longitudinal or cumulative study, which reveals the growth of the patterns of behavior in the individual, and the cross-sectional study, which shows where he is at a given time. When it is possible to have

the data obtained from all of these sources interpreted by several trained people working together, we have a situation which will be really effective and which will avoid most of the dangers and pitfalls that now surround the methods of analysis and description of personality.

III. INTEREST BLANKS AND INVENTORIES

1. *Interest, Personality, and Aptitude.* Closely related in both purpose and method to the personality estimates just described are the various interest finders or inventories now so extensively used. In fact, it is difficult to find any clear distinction between personality and interests. Any adequate description of personality must include the interests of the individual—intellectual and physical, cultural, social, occupational, and recreational. It is also apparent that interests are closely related to aptitudes. Interests are elements in, or parts of, the personality and the aptitude patterns. The only reason for a somewhat separate treatment here is the frequency of their use in schools and colleges as instruments in occupational choice.

The term "interest" is rather loosely used in guidance, but it may be defined somewhat technically as a feeling of liking associated with a reaction, either actual or imagined, to a specific thing or situation. Since it is a feeling, it cannot be objectively measured or determined, for its presence or absence can be revealed only by the statement of the individual himself. While there is no way by which this self report can be completely validated, we can make estimates that are, for practical purposes, very helpful.

2. *Kinds of Instruments.* Nearly all these instruments use some form of self report or questionnaire and cover a wide range. They vary in complexity. The simplest is probably the Check List of Occupations by Margaret E. Hoppock, which merely gives a detailed list of occupations and calls for the checking of the occupation in which the pupil is interested. The more complex involve the analysis of activities or types of activities involved in different occupations, characteristics and abilities that might be indicative of preferences, and the attitude of the individual toward conditions surrounding various types of occupations. Included in these tests would be such tests as Maller's Test of Sports and Hobbies and Dunlap's Academic Preference

Blank. Nearly all of them, however, are supposedly directed toward the location of occupational interests or preferences. Some confine themselves to the attempt to find interests in specific occupations or activities and conditions characteristic of occupations or of families of occupations. Examples of these are Manson's Occupational Interest Blank for Women, Lufburrow's Vocational Interest Locator, Kuder's Preference Record, and the Basic Interest Questionnaire of the National Institute of Vocational Research. Others include personality factors considered to be important in types of occupations. Among these are Gentry's Vocational Inventory, the Inventory of Activities and Interests of the Psychological Corporation, and Strong's Vocational Interest Blank.

Although the methods used in the various blanks are fundamentally very similar, there are certain important differences. Some restrict the questions to the liking or disliking for certain types of activity and to the interest or lack of interest in different occupations; others include subjective estimates of degree of interest or ability as "How much do you like it? How good are you at it?" Gentry includes all of these and adds questions attempting to find how much the individual knows about the occupation or activity. Nearly all blanks call for three degrees for checking purposes: "like, indifferent, dislike." Some ask the pupil to distinguish between five or even six degrees of likes and dislikes, interests, or lack of interest. There is no proof that five or six categories are more effective than three.

3. *Strong's Vocational Interest Blank.* One of the most widely used of these blanks is Strong's Vocational Interest Inventory. He has developed several different blanks, one for men, another for women, one for boys, another for girls, etc. These inventories are intended to reveal the extent to which one's interests agree or disagree with those of successful men and women in a given occupation. In addition to the page of general information about the individual, the inventory is divided into eight parts as follows: (1) Occupations, (2) Amusements, (3) School Subjects, (4) Activities, (5) Peculiarities of People, (6) Order of Preference of Activities, (7) Comparison of Interest between Two Items, (8) Rating of Present Abilities and Characteristics. The ratings on the activities are intended to be checks upon the occupational interests as well as to reveal the real interests of the

individual. Each of these inventories by Strong has been care-
fully compared with the interests of successful men and women
in various types of occupations. The implication is that, if one
likes the activities in a given occupation, he should select it or
at least consider it very carefully.

4. *Lufburrow's Interest Locator.* The Lufburrow Vocational
Interest Locator differs in several respects from Strong's inven-
tories. It confines its attention mainly to locating the interests
in occupations and, very briefly, to finding activities that are
liked. It groups occupations under headings intended to indicate
the type of activity characteristic of each group and gives ex-
amples. The following headings out of the ninety used will
indicate the method:

59. (   ) Hard Work Especially Requiring Muscular Strength, Good
Health, Hardiness, etc. *Ex.*—Foundryman, Blacksmith, Furnaceman,
Smelter, Refrigerator Man, Warehouseman, Furniture Mover, Lum-
berman, etc.

48. (   ) Relieving Human Distress and Need. *Ex.*—Physician,
Nurse, Attendant, Child Welfare Worker, Settlement Worker, Psy-
chiatrist, etc.

The various types of occupation are grouped into eleven
families: (1) Artistic, (2) Commercial, (3) Constructional, (4)
Industrial, (5) Scientific, (6) Executive, (7) Humanistic, (8)
Literary, (9) Transportational, (10) Mechanical, (11) Technical.
This inventory is intended to be primarily for the use of adults
or students in college or in the last grades of high school. It is
recommended that it be used in connection with interviews
involving the interpretation, discussion, and implication of the
results and the relation of these to the special problems of the
individual.

5. *Kuder Preference Record.* This widely used record empha-
sizes the value of answers to carefully worded questions indicat-
ing the type of activities that are liked, something like many of
the items in Section 7 of Strong's Vocational Interest Blank.
Occupations are grouped under nine general heads indicating
areas of interest or preference: (1) Mechanical, (2) Computa-
tional, (3) Scientific, (4) Persuasive, (5) Artistic, (6) Literary,
(7) Musical, (8) Social Service, (9) Clerical. The grouping of
most of the occupations listed under the various heads is based

upon the judgment of the author regarding the supposed similarity of the activities listed in the scale to the known duties of the worker; all are now being carefully checked by obtaining data from the different occupational groups. This blank is intended to serve as a means of making a systematic approach to the problem of selecting an occupation. The specific aims of the record are considered to be:

1. Pointing out vocations with which the student may not be familiar but which involve activities of the type for which the student expressed preference.

2. Checking on whether a person's choice of an occupation is consistent with the type of thing he ordinarily prefers.

It is recommended that, after the individual's profile has been obtained, the occupations that seem to be indicated by the profile be discussed with him. The areas that are particularly high may be noted and occupations thus indicated may be selected for further investigation. The author emphasizes the fact that the scores on the record should not be taken as evidences of ability. Evidences of abilities must be obtained from other sources.

6. *Limitations of Interest Inventories.* Interest inventories have proved to be valuable instruments in locating general and special interests of secondary-school students. When used, it should be with clear understanding of their limitations and their limited values. Among the limitations are the following:

1. It is not possible to determine the accuracy of the statements made by the individual reporting his interests. Apparently the truth of the statements varies with the form of the question.

2. Although Strong has found patterns of interest that distinguish men from women and those engaged in certain occupations from those in other occupations and from "Mr. Average Man," there is considerable overlapping among the interests, too much to be certain that such and such a pattern is really characteristic of a given occupation.

3. The interests of the adult worker in his activities may have been attained after he secured the job; he may not have had this interest when he was in school. This is denied by Strong but he has not yet presented evidence that is completely satisfactory.

4. Interests of high-school students are, naturally, confined to those activities in which they have had experience actually or vicariously.

Since one of our tasks is to broaden and create interests, the interest of a student at a given time may not be indicative of what occupation he should choose.

5. Interests are not to be confused with abilities. One may have an interest, superficial or deep, in some activity for which he has little ability. The converse is also true. Present interest does not necessarily predict success in the occupation.

6. Interests of high-school students are not sufficiently permanent to warrant using them even as indicators of occupational selection. Proctor found only about 25 per cent permanence of occupational interest among high-school students. Even among adults, Strong has found a correlation over a ten-year period of only 0.75. This is high as such correlations run but is hardly enough to warrant much stress upon the predictive value of such instruments for individuals.

7. No satisfactory grouping of occupations has yet been made into "families" which represent similar activities. Radically different occupations may involve the same or similar activities. The important element in an occupation is often not merely the activity itself but the combination of activities, the pattern of duties and responsibilities.

8. The families, or patterns of interests, as found by Strong are not necessarily related to success in the occupation. They are only the interests of those engaged in the occupation. No attempt has been made to find whether these interests are necessary for success in the occupation.

7. *Values of Interest Inventories.* Such inventories do have value in requiring the pupil to review and analyze his interests and to find those occupations about which he knows very little and which he should investigate more fully.

The interests, the likes, and dislikes revealed by these blanks are, in most cases, *real present* interests and as such have a real present value even though they are often not safe guides for the choice of an occupation. These interests should be utilized by teachers and counselors as a means of widening and enriching the knowledge of the pupil and developing an understanding and appreciation of different types of occupational life.

8. *Use of Profiles.* The profile is a common device for presenting the results of interest inventories and personality characteristics. It is a graphic representation made by drawing a line between the indicated degrees of interests or the estimated amount of characteristics of any individual. Profiles attempt to give a picture of the pattern of interests or characteristics of a

person and are often very useful. However, such pictures are like picture profiles, they give only a one-sided view of the individual. They are useful for they do reveal some things about the person, but they should not be accepted as a completely satisfactory picture of the whole person. When we look at the profile of a stranger, we do get a definite impression of the sort of person he is, but this impression is often completely changed when we get another view of him or when we see him smile or open his mouth to speak. We often say of a profile picture of a friend, "This does not do him justice," or "This flatters him." Judgments based on profiles alone are, or may be, very inaccurate and dangerous.

REFERENCES

1. ALLPORT, GORDON W.: "Personality: A Psychological Interpretation," Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1937. A helpful psychological approach to the problem of personality and its "measurement."

2. ANDERSON, JOHN E.: "The Psychology of Development and Personal Adjustment," Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1949. A book for college freshmen and sophomores. It interprets adjustment problems.

3. BELL, JOHN E.: "Projective Techniques: A Dynamic Approach to the Study of Personality," Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1948. Describes different types of projective techniques.

4. CARSON, BYRTA: "How You Look and Dress," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. This book deals more with helps for personality development than with estimating personality traits.

5. CATTELL, RAYMOND B.: "Description and Measurement of Personality," World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1946. A helpful reference on the meaning of personality and the techniques of estimating personality traits.

6. FLANAGAN, JOHN C., editor: "The Aviation Psychology Program in the Army Air Forces," A.A.F. Aviation Psychology Program, Research Reports No. 1, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1948. Chapter 4 deals with the selection and classification of air-crew personnel.

7. FORD, MARY: "The Application of the Rorschach Test for Young Children," Child Welfare Monograph Series No. 23, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1946. An experiment with 123 children three to eight years old.

8. FRYER, DOUGLAS: "The Measurement of Interests," Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1931. Although some of the methods described do not meet with general approval at present, this book will still be found helpful.

9. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J., and HILDA TABA: "Adolescent Character and Personality," John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949. A study of 144 sixteen-year-olds in high school.

very inadequate in securing all the information that is needed. Within comparatively recent years specialists, called "psychiatrists," have been developed who are especially trained for just such work.

3. *Field of Psychiatry.*[1] Mental diseases have been recognized for many years, both in law and in medicine. Physicians who specialized in mental diseases were called "alienists" and were often brought into court to testify regarding the sanity of the accused. They were chiefly interested in the diagnosis and institutional care of extreme cases of mental illness. As the scientific care and treatment of such cases developed, interest spread to those borderline cases that could not be called insane nor even mentally ill, but in which emotional disorders affected the health or the normal functioning of the individual.

This is the field of psychiatry. It has been defined as "that branch of medicine that deals with the diagnosis and treatment and prevention of mental diseases and disorders." The work of the regular physician, for the most part, is to heal physical illness; the major work of the psychiatrist is to heal mental illness. But just as an increasing duty of the physician is now being placed upon keeping a person well, keeping his body fit, so an increasing emphasis in psychiatry is now given to keeping the mental and emotional life healthy, not only in removing mental and emotional handicaps but in preventing their appearance.

The psychiatrist is usually a physician specially trained for such work, with a wide experience in dealing with abnormal mental conditions. By the nature of the case, these abnormal mental conditions usually are, or result in, emotional conditions that are the especial concern of the psychiatrist. It is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish certain phases of the work of the psychiatrist from certain phases of the work of the psychologist. Each claims a right to parts of the field of mental therapy. At present, the medical specialist seems to have the right of way to this special field. It is also somewhat difficult to distinguish the psychoanalyst from the psychiatrist. Most psychiatrists are really psychoanalysts to a degree, and must be. The

[1] No hard and fast line can be drawn between the services performed by the alienist, the psychiatrist, and the physician; their functions often overlap. The distinctions given here are, in general, the ones recognized.

term "psychoanalyst" is now used so frequently to indicate any sort of attempt to analyze the mind, from those that are really scientific and helpful to the veriest quackery, that respectable psychiatrists are averse to using the term at all. Some of these discredited methods of "psychoanalysis" are described in Chap. I.

4. *Development of Psychiatry.* Psychiatry has been very slow in its development, but now nearly every large city has a number of reliable psychiatrists who may be consulted and who will help in the diagnosis of abnormal mental, especially emotional, conditions that affect the individual. They are of great assistance in detecting cases of incipient dementia praecox and thus preventing serious consequences to the individual and to society. They are often successful in tracing the causes of so-called "kleptomania," of various fears, of special antipathies toward parents or teachers or companions, of abnormal sex desires, of extreme cruelty, or of the "inferiority complex," and of discouragement. These cases are diagnosed by observation of behavior, by sympathetic questioning, by securing the family history, and in a variety of other ways. Sometimes the conditions causing the mental state cannot be removed, but even then something may be done to change the attitude of the boy or girl toward the conditions. Often it is possible so to change conditions that the emotional attitude of the child is corrected and the difficulties removed. Sometimes the causes of the emotional conditions are traced back to the early life of the child and the process of rebuilding begun so that he is able to overcome the fears that kept him from succeeding.

Emphasis already has been placed upon the fact that the process of investigating the individual cannot be separated from the process of helping him; they both are parts of the same function. This is especially true of the work of the psychiatrist. He is not always interested in getting a complete case history of the individual; his interest is in trying to find what the trouble is and how it can be removed.

5. *Limited Facilities for Psychiatric Work.* The field is so large and the number of psychiatrists so small that only a comparatively few individuals who need this type of service can now be reached. It is but natural that the major part of the work of such specialists should be devoted to the extreme cases—those who really have mental and emotional illness. These constitute

very inadequate in securing all the information that is needed. Within comparatively recent years specialists, called "psychiatrists," have been developed who are especially trained for just such work.

3. *Field of Psychiatry.*[1] Mental diseases have been recognized for many years, both in law and in medicine. Physicians who specialized in mental diseases were called "alienists" and were often brought into court to testify regarding the sanity of the accused. They were chiefly interested in the diagnosis and institutional care of extreme cases of mental illness. As the scientific care and treatment of such cases developed, interest spread to those borderline cases that could not be called insane nor even mentally ill, but in which emotional disorders affected the health or the normal functioning of the individual.

This is the field of psychiatry. It has been defined as "that branch of medicine that deals with the diagnosis and treatment and prevention of mental diseases and disorders." The work of the regular physician, for the most part, is to heal physical illness; the major work of the psychiatrist is to heal mental illness. But just as an increasing duty of the physician is now being placed upon keeping a person well, keeping his body fit, so an increasing emphasis in psychiatry is now given to keeping the mental and emotional life healthy, not only in removing mental and emotional handicaps but in preventing their appearance.

The psychiatrist is usually a physician specially trained for such work, with a wide experience in dealing with abnormal mental conditions. By the nature of the case, these abnormal mental conditions usually are, or result in, emotional conditions that are the *especial* concern of the psychiatrist. It is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish certain phases of the work of the psychiatrist from certain phases of the work of the psychologist. Each claims a right to parts of the field of mental therapy. At present, the medical specialist seems to have the right of way to this special field. It is also somewhat difficult to distinguish the psychoanalyst from the psychiatrist. Most psychiatrists are really psychoanalysts to a degree, and must be. The

[1] No hard and fast line can be drawn between the services performed by the alienist, the psychiatrist, and the physician; their functions often overlap. The distinctions given here are, in general, the ones recognized.

term "psychoanalyst" is now used so frequently to indicate any sort of attempt to analyze the mind, from those that are really scientific and helpful to the veriest quackery, that respectable psychiatrists are averse to using the term at all. Some of these discredited methods of "psychoanalysis" are described in Chap. I.

4. *Development of Psychiatry.* Psychiatry has been very slow in its development, but now nearly every large city has a number of reliable psychiatrists who may be consulted and who will help in the diagnosis of abnormal mental, especially emotional, conditions that affect the individual. They are of great assistance in detecting cases of incipient dementia praecox and thus preventing serious consequences to the individual and to society. They are often successful in tracing the causes of so-called "kleptomania," of various fears, of special antipathies toward parents or teachers or companions, of abnormal sex desires, of extreme cruelty, or of the "inferiority complex," and of discouragement. These cases are diagnosed by observation of behavior, by sympathetic questioning, by securing the family history, and in a variety of other ways. Sometimes the conditions causing the mental state cannot be removed, but even then something may be done to change the attitude of the boy or girl toward the conditions. Often it is possible so to change conditions that the emotional attitude of the child is corrected and the difficulties removed. Sometimes the causes of the emotional conditions are traced back to the early life of the child and the process of rebuilding begun so that he is able to overcome the fears that kept him from succeeding.

Emphasis already has been placed upon the fact that the process of investigating the individual cannot be separated from the process of helping him; they both are parts of the same function. This is especially true of the work of the psychiatrist. He is not always interested in getting a complete case history of the individual; his interest is in trying to find what the trouble is and how it can be removed.

5. *Limited Facilities for Psychiatric Work.* The field is so large and the number of psychiatrists so small that only a comparatively few individuals who need this type of service can now be reached. It is but natural that the major part of the work of such specialists should be devoted to the extreme cases—those who really have mental and emotional illness. These constitute

many of the "problem cases" arising in the school. When the need is more fully recognized and when more men and women devote themselves to this specialty, we shall be able to give more time to those children who are not mentally ill but who need help, and so, we hope, prevent mental illness and secure more adequate mental and emotional adjustments to home, to school, and to work.

6. *Danger of Psychiatric Quacks.* As with all new methods of curing and preventing diseases, this field has its charlatans and quacks; untrained or half-trained men advertise themselves as psychiatrists and claim to be able to cure all forms of mental disease and to remove emotional handicaps of all sorts. These persons are dangerous in the extreme. Before consulting a psychiatrist great care should be taken to make sure that he is well trained and reliable.

II. The School Social Worker

1. *Inadequacy of Schools for Securing Information.* There are certain facts about children which are of special importance but which are very difficult to obtain with the ordinary machinery of the school. These have to do with the home life and the general out-of-school conditions. It is impossible for the school to do its work well unless it knows something about home conditions and the general social life of the children. The school is not the only agency responsible for education; all the forces affecting the child in any way must work in close cooperation before adequate education can be given. This dependence has long been recognized, and schools have attempted to provide some way by which teachers could come into close contact with the homes. Some superintendents demand that each teacher visit the home of every child in his room or his classes at least once each year. This has been generally abandoned because of the physical impossibility of carrying it out. Moreover, such forced visits are by no means always helpful. They are often perfunctory, like social calls, and not infrequently create a feeling of hostility.

In a study reported by Oppenheimer,[2] the average number of home visits made by regular teachers (not including kinder-

2 OPPENHEIMER, J. J., "The Visiting Teacher Movement," p. 24, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, New York, 1925.

garten teachers) during the year was three. This probably is as many as can be expected under normal conditions and considerably more than is the case today. Such haphazard visits so infrequently made cannot be relied upon to give much help in securing facts that are needed for guidance. It is also quite clear that the classroom teacher is usually not well enough equipped with the technique of visiting and of securing information that is reliable. To be effective, the visitor must be specially trained for such work.

2. *Function of the School Social Worker.* The school social worker—formerly called the visiting teacher—movement has developed in response to the need just mentioned. This social worker should not be confused with the home and school visitor, who is usually an attendance officer or connected with the attendance department. This confusion is one reason for the change in name. The school social worker is a trained social worker attached to a school. Her special function is to help the school and the home in dealing with the problems of children. At present her work is largely confined to the elementary school both because many of the problem cases have their origin in the years of childhood and because of the relatively small numbers of trained persons available for working with later grades.

The school social worker is really an assistant to the teacher; her chief function is to help secure for the child a happy and profitable school experience; to help individual teachers, groups of teachers, and parents to understand the underlying causes of undesirable behavior through case work, case conferences, and group discussion of definite behavior problems. She goes out from the school with the problems referred to her and attempts to discover what the situations in the child's life are which are causing the difficulties and what resources are needed to overcome them. She can be of use to the school only if the teacher wants her. The most sensitive teacher is the one who can be helped most, for such a teacher will know that there are more things to be done with and for her children than she can do.

We thus see that the school social worker not only assists the child in his adjustments but interprets the school to the home and also interprets the home and out-of-school life to the school. In doing this she occupies a key position in the educational sys-

tem. Her work might better be described under "methods of guiding pupils" than under "methods of securing information about pupils," for, although she does secure information that is very helpful to teachers and counselors, her chief emphasis is upon helping children rather than upon getting information about them.

3. *Work of the School Social Worker (Visiting Teacher).* The general work of the visiting teacher may be seen in the following outline given by Oppenheimer: [3]

1. Types of problems:

In School	*Out of School*
Scholarship	Home conditions
Conduct	Delinquency
Health	Recreation needs
Attendance	Early employment
Lateness	

2. Cases referred to the visiting teacher by

Principal	Teachers	Parents	Agencies

3. Procedure of the visiting teacher:

A. Investigation and Diagnosis

1. Teacher or principal gives statement and information to visiting teacher.
2. Visiting teacher looks up child's school records.
3. Observes child in class.
4. Confers with child.
5. Visits home and neighborhood.
6. Calls social service exchange if necessary.
7. Confers with agencies at present or formerly interested.
8. Records facts on information card and record form.
9. Sends information card back to teacher and principal.
10. Makes first diagnosis and tentative plan of treatment.
11. Confers with principal or teacher in regard to plan.

B. Treatment

1. Confers with child.
2. Secures home cooperation or adjustment.
3. Secures school cooperation.

[3] *Ibid.* pp. 133–134.

4. Gets cooperation of community agencies if necessary.
5. Records development of case on record form.
6. Makes final evaluation of diagnosis and treatment.

C. Follow-up

1. Keeps in touch with child after immediate cause of reference disappears.
2. Gives education, personal, and vocational advice.
3. Keeps in touch with the child after he leaves school.

The general features of this work have been well described by Miss Walker, a former president of the American Association of Visiting Teachers.[4]

Of course, primarily, the work of the visiting teacher has been case work with those children who, for some unknown reason or for causes not understood by the teacher and school administrators, are failing to benefit to their fullest capacity from their school experience. The visiting teacher, because of her special training and flexible program, will spend much time with the child getting an understanding of his hopes, interests, fears, ambitions, likes, and dislikes. She will then go to other social agencies, to the home, to the playground, any place where she may learn more about this boy or girl. She will go to the home with the story of the opportunities and plans of the school for the child. She will come back to the school with the picture of the child's life outside the school's four walls. She will then attempt to determine what it is which is lacking, or is thwarting, or is even crushing the child. Then, when she understands the difficulty, she is ready with the teacher, the family, the community—all of the potential factors—to make a plan of treatment which will help work out these difficulties.

This is the case method of approach to problems of children; it should not be confused with the case method of investigation described in the next section.

III. Case Study Methods [5]

1. *Origin of the Case Study Method.* The outline of work of the visiting teacher just given is founded upon the particular

---

[4] WALKER, WILMA, The Visiting Teachers Contribution to Social Work, *Better Times*, 13:12, 13, Apr. 11, 1931. (*Used by permission of the publisher.*)

[5] The case method of *investigation* should not be confused with the case method of *teaching* as used in law schools and especially by Brewer in

method of investigation called the "case study method." This method has been developed in recent years in social work. It arose because of the necessity for securing exact information about the condition of those applying for relief. Social relief organizations are no longer agencies merely for the distribution of "charity" to those who are needy or who apply. Their function is to assist in discovering the causes of need and in taking such action as will, as far as possible, remove the causes. This function of the social relief organizations has necessitated the development of certain techniques (1) for obtaining facts, (2) for diagnosis, and (3) for treatment. This method or technique has been called the "case study method," because the attention is centered upon the individual case and because it follows, in the main, the procedure of the more scientific physician.

2. *Case Study and Case Work.* The case study is a procedure that concerns itself with all the pertinent aspects of a single unit—an individual, an institution, a family, a community. All the factors and the combination of factors involved in a given behavior are examined to determine the existing status and to identify the causal factors operating. A distinction is sometimes made between case study and case work. Case study refers to the intensive investigation.

Case work refers especially to the remedial or corrective procedures that follow diagnosis. In practice, the two are not usually separated but are interrelated both in time and in method. Case study employs all types of research methods making use of tests, check lists, score cards, the interview, and direct observation. It is often genetic and moves forward with the child; it is, perhaps, more often backward

---

guidance. "Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance," Ginn & Company, and "Cases in the Administration of Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., are two very useful books compiled under the direction of Dr. Brewer that are based on the case method of teaching. In these are assembled many actual cases of individuals who need guidance or who have been partially guided; certain facts are given regarding each case; these are developed and presented in such a way that important points in the guidance process are clearly shown. They are devices for *teaching* the principles of guidance and for showing the best methods of administering guidance. The case method of investigation is a method used to *discover facts* about individuals. It provides the facts about the individuals, or cases, that are used in the *case method of teaching.*

looking, historical. The steps in case study method consist of the
following:

1. Recognition and determination of the status of the phenomenon
to be investigated.

2. Collection of data relating to the factors or circumstances asso-
ciated with the given phenomenon.

3. Diagnosis or identification of causal factors as a basis for remedial
or developmental treatment.

4. Application of remedial or adjustment measures.

5. Subsequent follow-up to determine the effectiveness of the cor-
rective or developmental measures applied.[6]

3. *Outline of the Case Study Method.* The condensed outline
given below will show more clearly the general nature of the
method: [7]

I. INFORMATION:

    A. *Symptoms.* The first step is always to get at the facts that
        indicate that the child is a problem case; not his history but
        the symptoms that have been noted. This involves finding
        his chronological age, the marks received in various subjects,
        instances of misconduct, latenesses and absences from school,
        etc.

        All statements must be actually verified. They must be
        taken from school records when possible and only firsthand
        information accepted. The information thus obtained will
        often be sufficient to show that the case is not a problem one
        at all. Care should be taken here to exclude all that does
        not have to deal with present symptoms. History is valuable
        only as it throws light upon the causes of symptoms, but
        when gathering data on symptoms, history should be ex-
        cluded. When the data are all in, they should be written
        up carefully and summarized.

    B. *Examination.* With the symptoms noted, more precise in-
        formation regarding the case is obtained by various tests and
        examinations. These are, of course, selected with reference
        to the needs of the particular case. Some of these are here
        given:

[6] GOOD, CARTER V., Case Study and Case Work, *Journal of Educational
Research,* 35:218–220, November, 1941. (*Used by special permission of
the publisher.*)

[7] MORRISON, HENRY C., "The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary
School," pp. 618–639 (adapted and condensed), University of Chicago
Press, Chicago, 1926.

1. Psychophysical:
   a. Vision—normal.
   b. Hearing—normal.
   c. Coordination (neuromuscular)—no good tests are available, but careful observation will give helpful data.
   d. Speech—normal.
2. Health:
   a. Vital index (height-weight ratio).
   b. Nutrition.
   c. Teeth.
   d. General physical condition.
3. Educational:
   Standard tests of various kinds suitable to the grade of the pupil. These are to be used to discover any fundamental weaknesses in his previous training and also to check up on the marks he has received.
4. Mentality:
   General intelligence test. It is best to give several types in order to avoid accidental results.
C. *Health and Physical History.* Very careful and exact information should be obtained not only of serious illnesses, scarlet fever, measles, etc., but of other illnesses and operations for adenoids, tonsils, and any accidents that may have affected the health or resistance. If possible, a complete record of growth in height and weight and physiological maturity should be obtained and carefully recorded.
D. *School History:*
   1. Promotions.
   2. Kind of work done.
   3. Changed location—home and school.
   4. Quality of schools attended.
   5. Relation with individual teachers.
E. *Family History:*
   1. Ancestry, parents, brothers and sisters, nationality, mental and criminal history, etc.
   2. Economic status and history.
      The previous and present financial and economic situation of the family.
   3. Cultural resources of the home.
      Education and training of parents, books, music, and cultural atmosphere of the home.
   4. Relations within the home—with parents and brothers and sisters.
   5. Attitude of parents toward society.

  6. Adjustment of parents to American standards.

  7. Control exercised by parents of children—kind and amount of control.

 F. *Social History and Contacts.* The pupil's social background outside the school and the home:

  1. Church and Sunday school, Boy Scouts, etc.

  2. Associates.

  3. Summer camps.

  4. Gang affiliations.

  5. Abnormal sex history.

  6. Court record.

II. DIAGNOSIS:

This is the working hypothesis of the cause or explanation of the symptoms or the problem and results from a careful analysis of all the data obtained. It is not necessarily delayed until all the evidence is in, for guesses or hypotheses are actually being made and leads followed up at many stages, but the final diagnosis is not actually made until the evidence *is* in. Possibly, the better statement would be that every guess or lead *is* followed until the worker *is* reasonably sure from the evidence that it *is* correct.

III. TREATMENT:

Out of the diagnosis grows the definite systematic treatment. It often happens that the treatment shows that the diagnosis was not correct. In this case we must go back for further investigation. In one sense, the treatment may be considered as a step in the verification of the hypothesis; in another it is itself a guess or an hypothesis set up as a possible remedy that itself needs verification by the final step.

IV. FOLLOW-UP:

 It is very necessary to know the results of the treatment in order to check the accuracy of the diagnosis and to modify, if necessary, the treatment. It also aids in later cases that may be similar in nature.

4. *The Case of Marie.* The following case, taken from a study of a certain high school, may serve to make clear certain parts of the case-study method. It is incomplete in many places and does not always follow the order shown in the outline. It is, however, a good illustration of a case study carried on in an ordinary high school with practically no facilities for special investigation such as visiting teacher, psychologist, or psychiatrist. It is the work of a regular, though not an ordinary, high-school teacher.

THE CASE OF MARIE GASPARRI [8]

1. *General Facts.*

Name	Marie Gasparri
Age	Thirteen
School	Washington High School
Grade	Second year, high school
Nationality	Italian
Health	Robust

2. *Problem.* Failure at the end of her sophomore year in Washington High School.

3. *Examination and Diagnosis.* Dark, slender, light-gray eyes and curly brown hair—obviously a northern Italian type—quick, nervous movements, a penetrating and almost insolent gaze, precocious, coquettish, rebellious, in short, a destructive factor in any classroom. Marie was an individual—interesting even though objectionable. Unaffected by discipline, her work was rarely prepared, and never on time, replete with impudent caricatures and sketches—showing ability. She was a child of divorced parents, continually traveling between the two, and alone, from early childhood; though well cared for, unwanted. Her interests, however, centered around her paint box and her books. She had never attended a school prior to high school. Her elementary education was received from a harassed French governess.

Happy to enter high school, for she had never intermingled with children of her age and was friendless, she found the children unsympathetic and her teachers distant. Beginning brilliantly in her freshman year, she successfully passed English, in which she did exceptionally well; Latin, easy for her Italian tongue; mathematics, barely; drawing, brilliantly; and history, passably. In her sophomore year her evident negligence and poised indifference to any sort of disciplinary measures antagonized her teachers. . . . In every classroom she sketched away. . . . Her entrance into a classroom was usually a cause for commotion among the boys. For the whole second year her work was worthless. She would have been dropped from the rolls if her I.Q., taken for statistical reasons, had not been exceptionally high (150, in fact), revealing her as a child of quite unusual ability.

Her English teacher became especially interested in Marie. Going out of her way to walk home with her, she cajoled her into writing a theme. Marie responded with a sketch of small-town life, with frequent excerpts from "Main Street." Her purpose increased by the

[8] A case reported by a graduate student.

promise of unsuspected abilities revealed by this sketch, the teacher proceeded in the attempt to ferret out the child's trouble. She discovered that Marie lived with a negligent aunt in a large, gloomy, old house in that section of the town where the aristocracy once had dwelt. She was highly sensitive and too greatly individualized to respond to ordinary methods of approach, well bred but impulsive, either dangerously gay or disturbingly sad, affectionate, but with no outlet for her emotions. She was embittered and showed a surprising maturity. Her mind was of an imaginative cast; she had misplaced her values and conceived of life as a miserable, farcical trick. Thoroughly interested, the English teacher resolved to help Marie during the following year. The summer vacation was about to begin. Marie had failed utterly her Caesar, English, history, mathematics—in short, everything but her drawing.

4. *Partial Treatment.* In the autumn Marie returned to school with an extravagant though tasteful wardrobe and continued with subjects repeated from the preceding year. The English teacher made further advances and these were accepted by the girl. She encouraged the child's art and, discovering that she had a predilection for music, arranged that Marie take music lessons. When Marie's reticence had been overcome, the teacher permitted herself to remonstrate with her for her rebellious attitude.

5. *Follow-up and Further Treatment.* Marie's work, under the encouragement of the English teacher, improved. She still suffered from hypersensitiveness and covered it with her poised rebellion. By the end of the year her grades were high and she was permitted to enter the junior year. Marie's sense of humor was little developed. The English teacher, by the frequent recounting of humorous anecdotes and inducing laughter at all possible times, convinced her that life was loads of fun if she'd only look. She coaxed Marie to make friendships and to forget her irony, so that by her senior year Marie seemed a normal high-school girl—still the individualist, but more amenable to discipline.

6. *Result.* On graduation, encouraged by her English teacher and by her principal, who had come to take a strong interest in the girl, she went to a college in a large city, taking a major in art. Four years later she returned to her home town, a fine, well-developed type of creative artist.

5. *Value of the Case Study Method.* In all problem cases in the school, whether of discipline, of adjustment to the school or to the teacher, of choice of studies, of choice of college or of occupation, case studies should be made as far as it is possible

to do so. All relevant data that it is possible to secure should be obtained and recorded, and this should be done *before* diagnosis and treatment. These case records should be carefully preserved in order that the case may be followed up and help given later if needed. Teachers should be led to look upon every child as an individual who should be treated as far as possible by the case method of procedure.

Two present tendencies are significant: (1) The clinical method is increasingly common, where the contributions of the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the physician, the psychiatric social worker, the teacher, and other community agencies are brought together and integrated on the study and treatment of the individual; (2) more emphasis is being placed upon "treatment as you go" than upon the long preliminary investigation followed by treatment. Time is too precious, crises will not wait; the case may become hopeless long before the investigation is completed.

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

1. COOK, KATHERINE M.: The Place of the Visiting Teacher Services in the School Program, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1945, No. 6. Washington, D.C., 1945. An informative pamphlet.

2. COOK, KATHERINE M.: State-wide Visiting Teacher Services, *School Life*, May, 1946.

3. FINK, ARTHUR E.: "The Field of Social Work," rev. ed., Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Contains a chapter on the school social worker.

4. OLSON, W. C.: "General Methods—Case Study," pp. 329–332, Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938. A brief description of methods of case study.

5. OPPENHEIMER, J. J.: "The Visiting Teacher Movement," Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, New York, 1925. An excellent account of the beginnings of the visiting teacher movement.

6. PARADISE, VIOLA: "Toward Public Understanding of Casework," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1948. A study of casework interpretation in Cleveland.

7. POOLE, FLORENCE: "The Function of the School Social Worker in the Pittsburgh Public Schools," U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1944.

8. POOLE, FLORENCE: Analysis of the Characteristics of School Social Workers, *Social Service Review*, December, 1949.

9. SAYLES, MARY B.: "Child Guidance Cases," Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publication, New York, 1932. This will be found very help-

ful in securing an understanding of the coordinated clinical method of treatment in social case work.

10. SIKKEMA, MILDRED: "School Social Work," pp. 460–463, Social Work Year Book, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1949.

11. "The Visiting Teacher in the United States," Report of the Survey Committee of the National Association of Visiting Teachers and Home and School Visitors, The Public Education Association of the City of New York, N.Y., 1921 (2d ed., 1923). The classic reference on the origin and development of the visiting teacher movement in the United States.

12. The publication *Understanding the Child*, by the National Association of School Social Workers, is a valuable source of information on this topic. Volume 19, No. 1, 1950, has an especially helpful group of articles.

METHODS OF RECORDING THE RESULTS OF INVESTIGATIONS OF THE INDIVIDUAL

I. Necessity for Adequate Records

In the preceding six chapters, we have considered the kinds of facts about individuals that are significant and have discussed various methods by which these facts may be secured. But it is not sufficient merely to obtain facts. We must also organize them and record them in such a way that they may be efficiently used. This is probably the least interesting part of the guidance work, but in many respects one of the most important. It is also the part that is most often neglected. Strange as it may seem, few schools have any adequate records of students covering a period of years. Even records of daily attendance and of scholarship are many times inefficiently recorded and more often destroyed after a few years, so that it is often impossible to get anything like a continuous record of a particular student over a period of years. Desirable changes in educational methods and in the general care of students are often delayed for years, and adequate personal guidance is rendered ineffective because we do not have records of important facts.

II. General Principles for Recording Data

1. *Necessity for Keeping Records.* The first principle that should be stressed is—*record* facts. In general, any fact that is worth getting is worth recording. Adequate guidance can be given only when all data that bear on the question at issue can be assembled and seen in perspective. Teachers and principals often discover facts about students that are of supreme importance, but let them slip by because they do not take the time to record them or because no provision is made for their record. No one should depend upon his memory for such facts. Our memory is most untrustworthy; we forget essential details and

our impressions are too often modified by later experiences. Even if a given teacher had a memory that recorded and retained details accurately over long periods, this would be of little use to the school or in the guidance of all the pupils. These facts should be available not to one person but to all who need them to guide students.

2. *Necessity for Recording Facts Only.* The second principle is—record *facts.* Great care should be exercised to have the records accurate. No amount of statistical juggling can overcome inaccurate records. Conclusions are never more reliable than the data upon which they are founded. The dangers usually met with in connection with securing facts are described in Chap. VI. It is sufficient here to emphasize the necessity for recording the facts we get as accurately as possible

3. *Usefulness the Criterion.* The third principle is—record only facts that will be used. It is poor policy to adopt a very intricate and comprehensive system of records that takes a great amount of the time of teachers, counselors, principals, and clerks, when little attention is given to the way in which the facts recorded will be used. When teachers are compelled to spend long hours in recording facts which mean nothing to them and which they think entirely useless, they are not so likely to be accurate in recording the facts as they would be if the facts recorded seemed vital to them. A good general policy, and one strictly in accord with modern educational theory, is to develop in teachers the feeling of the value of the facts before they are required to record them. This cannot always be followed out, for sometimes the only way to convince teachers of the value of certain facts is to have them recorded and then to show them how useful they are. In general, it is much better to build up the system of records at the same time that the sense of value of the facts recorded is being developed. Better a few facts that are used than a mass of material left on the shelves to gather dust and to take up space badly needed for other things. This implies that forms and records will often vary with the school and with the stage of development of the same school. Large schools, well equipped with clerical assistance and having a staff of special workers, will have more need for elaborate systems than will small schools, where all of this work must be done after school

hours by the principal or the teachers. Each school must decide for itself what records can be effectively used.

4. *Economy of Space.* The fourth principle is—record facts in such a way that a maximum of data can be recorded in a minimum of space. Records of any individual, to be valuable, should cover a number of years and accordingly should be condensed. Before adopting any system of records, a school should give much time to a careful study of the systems in use in other schools, especially with a view to economy of space. As far as possible, the permanent record should be on one card or folder. Bulky material is likely to get lost or misplaced and, even when carefully preserved, takes up so much space that its value is greatly diminished. While emphasizing this principle, we must be careful not to condense to the point of confusion. Sometimes a system of records is devised with great care and condensed into a very small space; code numbers or signs are used in place of descriptions. This works well so long as the ones who use the records remember accurately the significance of the codes, but when they do not, great confusion arises. It is much better to use very simple and easily understood codes if they are used at all. Accuracy in use should never be sacrificed to reduction of space in filing.

5. *Arrangement of Data to Show Significance.* The fifth principle is—record facts in such a way that the significance of the data may be seen quickly. It is, of course, not always possible to throw all significant facts together. The one using the blank should carefully examine all parts of it. It is often possible, however, to use the graphical method and to show the complete history of an individual for a considerable period of years in a very small space. Data regarding growth in height and weight, progress in school, results of examinations, health history, etc., may be recorded in this way. An admirable example of such a system is that devised by Dr. E. Carleton Abbott for use in the public schools of Lansdowne. This is shown on pages 246 to 249. Here, not only can the entire history of the student be seen at a glance, but all significant data for any given year may be seen and compared. This blank also well illustrates the principles laid down under 4, for the material is condensed and only codes that are simple and easily remembered and quickly verifiable are used.

6. *Assembly of Data Regarding an Individual.* The sixth principle is—keep all facts regarding an individual together. The value of this is almost too evident to need discussion, but it is very frequently violated. Either through lack of cooperation or laziness of those who keep records, or both, those who wish to learn the facts about students must spend hours of time going from one place to another, meeting all sorts of opposition, intentional and unintentional, before the data can be obtained. It is true that, in a large system, the teacher, the principal, the medical examiner, the psychiatrist, the attendance officer, and the visiting teacher each must have his own records in his own office. But we are here speaking of the records that are to be used for guidance purposes. To make the facts obtained by these different agencies available, there should be provision made for sorting out those which have permanent value and which are of the most significance and placing them on a single card or folder. Here the record devised by Abbott for the Lansdowne schools and reproduced on pages 246 to 249 is suggestive. The entire space of the folder, approximately 11 by 17 inches, is utilized on both sides. It is also possible to place inside the folder cards or sheets containing additional material. This is especially valuable for the small school.

III. Cumulative Records

The principles laid down presuppose and emphasize the value of the cumulative record. Isolated facts mean little and are often unreliable but, when taken all together and seen in their mutual relationships, they may be much more valid and reliable. What a person does today has its greatest significance only when seen in connection with what he has done previously. A student receives a mark of "B" in algebra for the month of March. This gives some indication of what he actually accomplished during that month, but it tells us little regarding what he can do or what he should be encouraged to do. His marks for each month from September to March help us to gage his progress; if we knew his record in other studies, it would be still more helpful. If we also knew something about what he was doing in athletics or other school activities, what the conditions in his home were, what other interests he had—all these would be still more valuable. If, in addition to this, we had all these data for his entire

school life from the first grade to the ninth, we would be able to understand much better what his mark in algebra for the month of March really signified. Progressive schools all over the country have adopted, in principle, the cumulative record idea and are putting it into practice as rapidly as they can find means to do it.

IV. FORMS OF CARDS AND RECORD BLANKS

1. *Form Recommended by the National Association of Secondary-school Principals.* The secondary-school record recommended by the Association in 1941 is compact and reasonably complete. The two sides of the folder are shown on pages 242 to 245. The data on health and physical condition, placement, etc., are recorded on additional blanks.

2. *The Pupil Permanent Record Blank.*[1] The cumulative blank used in the Lansdowne, Pa., public schools is an adaptation of one adopted by the schools under the direction of the County Superintendent of Schools of Bucks County, Pa. In general form it is similar to the blank devised by the American Council on Education in 1941, which has been used extensively throughout the country. A careful study of this blank will show the great value for guidance of the data obtained and especially of the method of recording them. The blank includes test data, scholastic records, extracurricular activities, health records, and the educational and vocational plans of the pupil. It has a place for recording estimates of character and personality traits. It is compact and well arranged (see pages 246 to 249).

Nearly every school could obtain data for all of the items listed and could also add to them pertinent data relating especially to the locality or character of the school. Such data are often filed in the folder on additional sheets. Confidential data should ordinarily not be placed on the permanent record but notations should be made at some convenient place on the card indicating where such data could be found or giving the name of the person who could supply useful points of view resulting from such confidential data.

3. *Anecdotal Record.* The anecdotal record or "journal" is a running cumulative description of actual instances of behavior

---

[1] Devised by Dr. E. Carlton Abbott, Superintendent of Schools, Lansdowne, Pa., and used here by his special permission.

as observed by teachers and counselors. It provides a cumulative body of evidence relating to the habits, ideas, and personality of pupils as manifested in their behavior. These records usually consist of (1) more or less objective statements of behavior and (2) a comment by the teacher regarding such behavior. The descriptions of behavior are of two general kinds: (1) a description of behavior in a definite situation or (2) one of accustomed behavior over a period of time. An example of the first is the following:

Place: Biology class.

Objective Description: Mary came to me before class today to say that she had written to the State Department of Agriculture concerning their bulletins on mammals. She had just had a reply stating that they had none on hand but would send them to her as soon as they were available.

Comment: Mary has shown real interest in biology since she studied the subject of birds. She is reporting her own observations to me and looking up outside material.

An example of the second is the following:

Place: English class.

Objective Description: I have been finding Edward day after day in the library reading magazines, yet he never has time to correct errors or to work carefully on English assignments.

Comment: He likes to read but not to work. I have removed library privileges from Edward until he brings his work to a satisfactory level. The librarian has agreed not to admit him during his free periods.[2]

The number of anecdotes recorded for each pupil varies greatly even within one school, and it is impossible to set any definite number that should be recorded. They take time, and many teachers are overburdened already. Experience has already demonstrated the usefulness of such records, and it is often possible to reduce the amount of other types of records so that sufficient time may be given to the anecdotal forms. Certainly enough records of this kind should be made to give a clear description from each teacher of the growth and the developmental

---

[2] Both of these illustrations have been adapted from ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, editor, "Guidance in Public Secondary Schools," pp. 196, 199, Educational Records Bureau, New York, 1939.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL RECORD

Name, in full ....   Sex.... M. or F. ......

      Last Name   First Name   Middle Name

Home Address..........   City   State ....

     Number and Street

Birth Date..........   Name of Parent or Guardian........

Entered {   Name of School   Entrance Date.......... Month   Year

      Location of School

Was graduated....... Will be graduated.... Withdrew....

    Month   Year   Month   Year

Class periods are .... minutes, ... times a week, ... weeks a year. Passing mark is.... College recommending mark....

1. Describe your marking system if unusual. ....
2. List other secondary schools attended. ....

CLASS RECORD

If no marks are given, check.   Circle marks or checks for half-year subjects.   Specify laboratory periods, variations in time allowance for subjects, or any other information needed to interpret this record. Such other information as Regents grades, College Boards and record of a fifth year may be entered in the Extra column. If a school does not use marks, enter here an estimate of success achieved.

Notes

Subject	Grade	9	10	11	12	Extra
	Year	19	19	19	19	
English						
Lang.						
Math.						
Science						

Room..............
Grade..............

PERSONALITY RECORD (CONFIDENTIAL)

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ...... Last Name .... First Name .... Middle Name

School....... .... Town or city........ State.......

The following characterizations are descriptions of behavior; they are not ratings. It is recommended that where possible the judgments of a number of the pupil's present teachers be indicated by use of the following method:

Example SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE

M (5)   M (5)   2

M (5) indicates the most common or modal behavior of the pupil as shown by the agreement of five of the eight teachers reporting. The location of the numerals to the left and right indicate that one teacher considers the pupil *vacillating* and that two teachers consider him *purposeful*. If preferred the numerals may be used to replace the numerals with the pupil in relationship with the other areas of relationship with the pupil may be used to replace the numerals.

1. SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE	Purposeless	Vacillating	Potential	Limited	Purposeful
2. INDUSTRY	Seldom works even under pressure	Needs constant pressure	Needs occasional prodding	Prepares assigned work	Seeks additional work
3. INITIATIVE	Seldom initiates	Conforms	Varies with conditions	Self-reliant	Actively creative
4. INFLUENCE	Passive	Retiring but co-operative	Varying	Contributing	Strongly controlling
5. CONCERN FOR OTHERS	Antisocial	Indifferent	Self-centered	Somewhat socially concerned	Deeply and generally concerned

6. RESPONSIBILITY

| Unreliable | Somewhat dependable | Usually dependable | Conscientious | Assumes much responsibility |

7. EMOTIONAL STABILITY

| Hypremotional | Excitable | Usually well-balanced | Well-balanced | Exceptionally stable |
| Apathetic | Unresponsive | | | |

Significant school activities:

Special interests or abilities:

Significant limitations (physical, social, mental):

Additional information which may be helpful such as probable financial needs or work experience:

Principal's recommendation (Specific statement concerning the applicant's fitness for acceptance):

Date.......... Signature.......... Title..........

This Personality Record is available as a separate form, i.e., the Secondary-school Record is omitted, leaving one side blank.

The Lansdowne Cumulative Record Blank
PUPIL PERMANENT RECORD

Sec. I

LAST NAME   FIRST   MIDDLE   M. F.   W. N. Y.   BIRTH CERTIFICATE NO.
     NICKNAME   SEX   COLOR   BIRTH DATE   BIRTHPLACE   BY WHOM
ADDRESS (From)   TELEPHONE (Home)   FAMILY PHYSICIAN   VACCINATION DATE   REASON (First)
ENTERED FROM   DATE   WORK OR SCHOOL (IE.)   DATE   REASON   REASON (Final)

HEALTH CONDITIONS
GENERAL
EXAMINATION
DENTAL
VISUAL

OTHER SIGNIFICANT DATA

PHOTOGRAPHS

(1) SEE 1-1

DATE (Final)

Sec. II   ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SCHOLASTIC RECORD

YEAR | Gr. | TEACHER | SCHOOL | | | | | | | | | | | | | Gr. | | | | | | Gr.

COMMENT

Sec. III   OBJECTIVE TEST DATA

| MENTAL ABILITY | Form | C.A. | M.A. | M.L. | I.Q. | Date | Gr. | Score | %ile |
| READING | Form | Score | Age Eq. | Gr. Eq. | %ile | Date | Gr. | | | |

SPECIAL APTITUDE

INTEREST

Sec. IV   EDUCATIONAL-VOCATIONAL PLANS OF
STUDENTS   PARENTS
Gr.   High School

TRANSCRIPT OF RECORD
SCHOOL
DATE   SCHOOL

JUNIOR - SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL SCHOLASTIC RECORD

Sec. VIII FAMILY BACKGROUND DATA

	FULL NAME	NATIONALITY	CITIZENSHIP	ADDRESS LOCATION	RELIGION	OCCUPATION	MARITAL STATUS	DECEASED DATE
PARENTS							LANGUAGES SPOKEN	DATE
FATHER								
MOTHER								
GUARDIAN		AT HOME	SIBLINGS (Name)	BIRTH DATE	AT HOME	FATHER'S EMPLOYER ADDRESS		ILL.
SIBLINGS (Name)						MOTHER'S EMPLOYER ADDRESS		ILL.
						AGENCY'S NAME		TEL.
TYPE OF COMMUNITY IN WHICH CHILD HAS LIVED		Rural ☐	Small Town ☐	Suburban ☐	City ☐	ADDRESS		

Sec. IX

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

CHARACTERISTICS	R	G	G	G	G	G	R	G	G	G	G	G
SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE 1. Purposeless. 2. Vascillating. 3. Potential. 4. Limited. 5. Fruitful.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
INDUSTRY 1. Seldom works under pressure. 2. Rapidly exhausted under pressure. 3. Needs occasional prodding. 4. Performs assigned work. 5. Seeks additional work.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
INITIATIVE 1. Seldom initiates. 2. Conforms. 3. Works with conditions. 4. Self-reliant. 5. Actively creative.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
INFLUENCE 1. Passive. 2. Pliant but cooperative. 3. Varying. 4. Constructive. 5. Strongly controlling.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
CONCERN FOR OTHERS 1. Antisocial. 2. Indifferent. 3. Self-centered. 4. Superficially concerned. 5. Deeply and genuinely concerned.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
RESPONSIBILITY 1. Unreliable. 2. Somewhat dependable. 3. Usually dependable. 4. Conscientious. 5. Assumes much responsibility.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
EMOTIONAL STABILITY 1. Unstable. 2. Unresponsive. 3. Usually well balanced. 4. Well balanced. 5. Exceptionally stable.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					
SECURITY 1. Not accepted. 2. Withdrawn. 3. Neutral. 4. Uncertain. 5. Secure.	1 2 3 4 5						1 2 3 4 5					

TELEPHONE

EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

NAME OF ACTIVITY	Gr.	19	19	Gr.	19	19	Gr.	19	19	Gr.	19	19	Gr.	19	19	Gr.	19	19
ATHLETICS																		
CLUBS																		
DRAMATICS																		
MUSIC																		
PUBLICATIONS																		
STUDENT COUNCIL																		
OFFICES HELD IN SCHOOL																		
VOCATIONAL EXPERIENCES																		
*OUT OF SCHOOL																		
DEMANDS																		
*SUMMER EXPERIENCES (Other than work)																		
*HOBBIES and INTERESTS																		
OUTSTANDING ACHIEVEMENTS and ABILITIES																		

characteristics of every pupil. The brief descriptions of conduct given in many of the forms for recording personality traits (pages 204 to 208) approach the anecdotal technique and may often represent the best that can be expected under present conditions.

When it is possible, summaries should be made of a series of anecdotes for a pupil. These are found to be very helpful. In some cases such summaries cannot be made; the different descriptions of conduct of a boy over a series of weeks or even years tell the developmental story much better than any summary.

Several observations regarding the use of anecdotal records may be appropriate:

1. Anecdotal records should be considered not as substitutes for other records but as supplements to them.

2. Teachers need in-service training regarding this technique. Such training will greatly increase the value and accuracy of the reports.

3. The objective description of the behavior should always be separated from the subjective comments. Each is valuable, but the statement of the behavior should not be colored by the opinions of the teacher regarding its cause.

4. Sources of anecdotes should go beyond the schoolroom and the school. Any significant behavior, wherever it may be observed, may well be recorded.

5. The anecdotes should, on the whole, include (*a*) behavior favorable to the pupil, (*b*) behavior unfavorable to him, and (*c*) behavior which is neither favorable nor unfavorable to him but which will help in attaining an understanding of him.

REFERENCES

1. AYER, F. C.: "Practical Child Accounting," Steck Company, Austin, Texas, 1949. A practical handbook on records.

2. BERMAN, SAMUEL: Revising the Junior High School Report Card, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin,* 28:49–62, May, 1943. Some improvements on the older records are suggested.

3. DOUGLASS, HARL R., and WILLIAM T. GRUHN: "The Modern Junior High School," The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947. Chapter 14 gives samples of cards and describes their uses.

4. NEWSOM, H. W., and J. H. PENDERGAST: "Manual for the Preparation of Term Reports for High School Students," Sayer Books, Inc., Denver, Colorado, 1947. A practical handbook.

5. PATRICK, HOWARD: Junior High School Records, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin,* 29:102–104, April, 1945. A helpful reference.

6. RATHS, LOUIS: Anecdotal Records, *Progressive Education Association, Bulletin 1*, Evaluation of the Eight Year Study, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, September, 1935. A description of the anecdotal records used in the eight-year study and an evaluation of their usefulness.

7. SEGEL, DAVID, Chairman: Handbook of Cumulative Records, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1944, No. 5, Washington, D.C., 1944. A very useful and compact presentation of types of cumulative record.

8. STRANG, RUTH: "Every Teacher's Records," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936. An excellent, impartial discussion of types of teachers' records and their value.

9. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.: "How to Use Cumulative Records," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1949. Gives directions on how to develop and use cumulative records.

10. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.: "Techniques of Guidance," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1945. Chapter VII describes anecdotal records, and Chaps. XI and XII give samples of record cards and a discussion of methods of recording and using them for guidance.

11. VAN DYKE, H. Q.: The Cumulative Case Study Record and Guidance, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin*, 22:49–52, November, 1938. A brief but helpful discussion of the cumulative case study record.

12. WRINKLE, W. W.: "Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools," Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1947. Gives suggestions for improving marking and reporting.

13. YEAGER, WILLIAM A.: "Administration and the Pupil," Chap. XXI, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. An excellent description of types of records and their uses.

CHAPTER XII

METHODS OF SECURING FACTS ABOUT GENERAL
CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

There are some facts of a more or less general nature that are
essential to any consideration of guidance. These relate to
attendance at school and to conditions under which minors are
allowed to work.

I. COMPULSORY-ATTENDANCE LAWS

1. *Importance of Facts Regarding Attendance Laws.* Com-
pulsory-attendance laws are of fundamental importance, not only
in relation to the study of educational opportunities but also in
relation to the consideration of occupational choices. Copies of
such laws should be in the hands of every teacher, and the exact
nature of the provisions of the laws should be understood by
everyone who has anything to do with the guidance of pupils.
This is especially important in the sixth, seventh, and eighth
grades. Not only should the laws of the state be known, but the
general conditions and the tendencies in the country as a whole
should be noted. An excellent digest of the compulsory-attend-
ance laws for the various states has been compiled by the U.S.
Office of Education.[1]

A few of the most important facts will be given in the form of
tables for ready reference.

2. *Age Limits for Attendance.* Table XXIX shows the age
limits for attendance in the country as a whole.

All states require attendance at school at least between the
ages of eight and fourteen. Five states require attendance until
seventeen, and five states until eighteen. All the rest require

[1] PROFFITT, MARIS M., and DAVID SEGEL: Compulsory Education, and
Child Labor, School Laws and Regulations, *U.S. Office of Education Bul-
letin*, 1945, No. 1, Washington, D.C., 1946.

TABLE XXIX. MAXIMUM AGE FOR REGULAR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE UNLESS
EXCUSED FOR WORK OR OTHER LEGAL REASON, 1949

Ages	Number of States
18	5
17	5
16	38 and District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico

attendance until sixteen. As will be seen in Table XXX, most
states where attendance is required beyond the age of fifteen or
sixteen make provision for exemptions for those engaged in work.
The report also shows that twenty-two states require nine years
of school attendance; ten states require eight years; nine states
require ten years; one state requires twelve years; and one state
requires eleven years of attendance.

TABLE XXX. MINIMUM AMOUNT OF EDUCATION NECESSARY TO EXEMPT FROM
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, 1945

Amount of Education	Number of States
High school......................	14
Elementary school................	26
Not specified....................	8
	—
Total........................	48

3. *Length of Required Attendance.* All except one state re-
quire attendance each year during the full term of school. Be-
cause the legal length of the school year varies in different states,
the length of required school attendance varies. The legal length
varies from five or six to 9½ months; in twenty-six states or more
at least eight months is required.

4. *Amount of Schooling Necessary to Exempt from School At-
tendance—1945.* Table XXX gives the minimum school grade
required for exemption from school attendance.

This indicates the required minimum education only in a gen-
eral way. It really indicates merely grade in school attained, not
scholastic attainment. Some pupils in the sixth grade have not,
in reality, attained more than third-grade standards in the funda-
mentals.

5. *Education Necessary for Labor Permits.* In Table XXXI, the requirements of the states are shown with regard to the amount of education required for labor permits.

TABLE XXXI. MINIMUM AMOUNT OF EDUCATION NECESSARY FOR LABOR PERMITS, 1945

Amount of Education	Number of States
Eighth grade	35
Seventh grade	1
Sixth grade	2
Fifth grade	1
Fourth grade	1
Ability to read and write	5
None	3
Total	48

Tables XXX and XXXI should be taken together, for although four states require the completion of a high-school course before children are exempt from school attendance, in the majority of states, as a matter of fact, they may be exempt from attendance at the regular school if they have completed the sixth grade. There are also a number of other exemptions, so that in many states the school authorities are given wide discretionary powers of exemption.

6. *General Tendencies.* These tendencies, noted by Keesecker [2] in 1928, have the most significance, even for today:

1. To lengthen the period of compulsory education by making it effective at an earlier and to a later age. The establishment of kindergartens and compulsory attendance for part-time continuation, or evening, schools are, in part, an expression of this tendency.

2. To increase the annual required school attendance.

3. To extend the compulsory provisions to include various handicapped children; also to provide parental schools for delinquents.

4. To require more education for exemption and for labor permits.

5. To require public relief to indigent children and subject them more to the attendance law.

6. To provide transportation for children not living within the usual walking distance from school.

[2] KEESECKER, WARD W., *Laws Relating to Compulsory Education, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin,* 1928, No. 20, Washington, D.C., 1929.

Although it is difficult to determine fully the characteristics of an efficient compulsory-attendance law, the following observations by Deffenbaugh and Keesecker [3] are suggestive:

1. A compulsory-school-attendance system which begins with children six years of age is likely to secure more school attendance than a system which begins with children eight years of age.

2. A law which requires attendance until seventeen or eighteen years of age may be expected to produce more attendance than one which requires attendance only until fourteen or fifteen.

3. A law which requires an eighth-grade education for labor permits may be expected to produce more attendance or at least more education than a law which authorizes the issuance of labor permits upon completion of the fifth or the sixth grade.

4. More attendance is expected from a minimum school term of nine months than from a minimum term of seven months.

5. A law which defines truancy and prescribes prompt and definite procedure on the part of teachers and truancy officers in dealing with indifferent parents whose children are delinquent in school attendance is likely to promote more school attendance than a law which is vague concerning truancy and the procedure for enforcement.

6. A law which allows few exemptions and only for definite reasons may be expected to produce more attendance than one which exempts for numerous, vague, or indefinite reasons.

7. A law which provides for a continual or at least an annual school census will enable better enforcement of school attendance than one which provides for a biennial school census.

8. A law which requires that all attendance officers shall be certified by the state and qualified to deal sociologically with individual nonattendance problems may be expected to promote better relationship between the home and the school than a law which permits local school boards the freedom to select unsuitable and unqualified attendance officers.

9. A law which provides for state supervision of the enforcement of school attendance requirements may be reasonably expected to promote better school attendance than one which leaves the matter exclusively in the hands of local school officials.

II. CHILD-LABOR LAWS

1. *Importance of Child-labor Laws.* The provisions of law relating to the conditions of labor for minors are also very im-

---

[3] DEFFENBAUGH and KEESECKER, *op. cit.*, pp. 61, 62.

portant, both when considering the choice of schools and when considering the choice of occupations. It often happens that a boy would like to leave school and enter a certain occupation, but the laws will not allow him to enter that particular occupation. Hence, the problem becomes one of the choice of a school or of a course rather than the choice of an occupation. Child-labor laws are often somewhat technical and complex and should be so analyzed by school officials as to make clear their essential features and so arranged that they can readily be understood by teachers, parents, and pupils. This is usually the task of the principal or of the special guidance worker. Copies of such laws are easily obtained and should be kept where they can be used. Teachers, as well as parents, are too often completely ignorant of the provisions of such laws.

2. *General Provisions of Child-labor Laws.* Child-labor laws vary greatly in different states, but relate, as a rule, to (1) the limitation of daily and weekly hours of labor and to night work; (2) the imposition of certain requirements to be met by applicants for working certificates, such as the completion of a certain grade at school and evidences of physical fitness; (3) the prohibition of occupations dangerous to life or limb, health, and morals. Such laws should, and usually do, correspond with the school-attendance laws.

3. *Federal Legislation on Child Labor.* Since the beginning of the century several attempts have been made to enact Federal laws to regulate child labor. Two laws were passed by Congress but were declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. In 1924, Congress passed a joint resolution for an amendment that would give Congress power "to limit, regulate, and prohibit the labor of persons under eighteen years of age." In spite of strong and organized opposition, especially by the National Association of Manufacturers, more than half the states have now ratified the amendment and there is strong hope that it will finally be adopted. In 1938, Congress passed the Fair Labor Standards Act, known as the Wage-Hour Act. This was amended in 1949, to become effective Jan. 25, 1950. This amendment changed many of the former requirements materially. Some of these changes are given:

1. Many more workers are included. Minor employees who are employed in commerce, even though the goods manufactured are not shipped for interstate commerce, are covered.

2. There is an effective bar against covered agricultural employment which competes with schooling. Children under sixteen years may not be employed in agriculture (except for their parents on their home farms) during school hours.

3. Employers are directly prohibited from employing in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce children who are under the minimum age limits.

4. The exemption of children working for their parents was narrowed to close a loophole. Parents are no longer permitted to employ their children in occupations that have been declared hazardous.

5. Employers engaged in the delivery of newspapers to consumers are added, and the exemption for actors is broadened.

This Act contains excellent child-labor provisions. Following closely the legislative principle on which the first Federal Child Labor Law was based, the Wage-Hour Act prohibits the shipment in interstate commerce of goods made in establishments in which child labor has been employed within thirty days prior to shipment. Child labor is defined as the employment of children under sixteen years, or the employment of children under eighteen years in occupations found and declared hazardous by the Federal Children's Bureau. There are exemptions for children "employed in agriculture while not legally required to attend school," and for children employed as actors in motion pictures or theatrical productions. The provisions do not apply to children employed by their own parents in occupations other than manufacturing or mining, and the Children's Bureau is given power to exempt children fourteen to sixteen years old for work (other than manufacturing or mining) that does not interfere with their schooling, health, or well-being. Administration of the child-labor provisions is placed in the hands of the Children's Bureau, which is authorized to issue employment certificates and to cooperate with state and local offices concerned with the administration of child-labor laws.

The Fair Labor Practices Acts, together with the interpretations of the Federal Children's Bureau, have been a powerful factor in reducing the amount of child labor. Gradually state laws are coming into line. The belief that children under sixteen should be in school and that conditions of employment for minors should be regulated by state and Federal law is generally accepted.

4. *Recommended National Standards and State Laws.* The National Child Labor Committee and the Federal Children's Bureau have been very active in formulating desirable standards for child-labor legislation. The most recent of these is that recommended by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy in January, 1940. This is as follows:

PROTECTION AGAINST CHILD LABOR

The Conference endorses the following requirements, now widely accepted as minimum for protective legislation:

1. A minimum age of sixteen for all employment during school hours and for employment at any time in manufacturing or mining occupations or in connection with power-driven machinery.

2. A minimum age of sixteen for employment at any time in other occupations, except as a minimum age of fourteen may be permitted for limited periods of work after school hours and during vacation periods in agriculture, light nonmanufacturing work, domestic service, and street trades. Determination of desirable standards for legislation governing child actors requires further study.

3. A minimum age of eighteen or higher for employment in hazardous or injurious occupations.

4. Hours-of-work restrictions for persons up to eighteen years of age, including maximum hours, provision for lunch period, and prohibition of night work, the hours permitted not to exceed eight a day, forty a week, and six days a week.

5. Requirement of employment certificates for all minors under eighteen, issued only after the minor has been certified as physically fit for the proposed employment by a physician under public-health or public-school authority.

6. At least double compensation under workmen's compensation laws in cases of injury to illegally employed minors.

7. Minimum-wage standards for all employed minors.

8. Abolition of industrial homework as the only means of eliminating child labor in such work.

9. Adequate provision for administration of all laws relating to the employment of children and youth.

The Conference also makes the following recommendation:

10. Ratification of the child-labor amendment to the Constitution of the United States should be completed immediately.

With reference to provision of school facilities as they relate to child labor, the Conference recommends the following:

11. Compulsory-school-attendance laws should be adjusted to child-labor laws, since school-leaving and child labor are closely related.

Schooling during at least nine months of the year should be both compulsory for and available to every child up to the age of sixteen.

12. It is the obligation of the community to provide a suitable educational program for all youth over sixteen who are not employed or provided with work opportunities.

13. Financial aid from public sources should be given whenever necessary to young persons to enable them to continue their education even beyond the compulsory-attendance age if they wish to do so and can benefit thereby.[4]

The standards set by the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials (I.A.G.L.O.) are similar to those recommended by the White House Conference. A condensed statement of these recommendations is given in the accompanying table, together with the legislation regarding each in the different states.[5]

This picture of the provisions of state laws as compared with the standards described above in 1940 has not materially changed in 1950. In a few states there has been marked progress; in some others the determined efforts to reduce the standards set up have been narrowly averted. In general, child-labor laws follow the pattern of compulsory-attendance laws. When jobs are plentiful and labor scarce it is difficult to secure more stringent laws but when unemployment is high and jobs are scarce it is much easier.

5. *Prevalence of Child Labor.* In spite of the efforts of those who oppose child labor, the Census of 1920 showed that over a million children between the ages of ten and fifteen were gainfully employed, over half of these on the farms or in kindred agricultural pursuits. The industrial and economic changes described in Chap. I were powerful factors in the reduction of child labor in the decade 1920–1930. The Census of 1930 reported only 667,118 between the ages of ten and fifteen who were engaged in gainful occupations, 469,497 being in agriculture. It is evident that these figures are far too low and do not include many types of child workers.

---

[4] WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN IN A DEMOCRACY, "Recommendations," pp. 13–15, Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1940.

[5] From data furnished by the Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency.

	I.A.G.L.O. standard	States having laws meeting I.A.G.L.O. standard
Minimum age	16 years for factory work and for all employment during school hours; 14 years for nonfactory work outside school hours	14 states approximate this standard (Conn., Fla., Mass., Mont., N.J., N.Y., N.C., Ohio, Pa., R.I., S.C., Utah, W. Va., Wis.). Of these, 8 have a 16-year minimum for work in factories at any time (Mont., N.J., N.Y., N.C., Pa., R.I., S.C., Utah), and 1 (Conn.) has this minimum for work in factories and stores at any time
Hazardous occupations	*Minimum age* 18 for work in a considerable number of hazardous occupations	Few, if any, states extend full protection in this respect to minors up to 18 years of age, though many state laws prohibit employment under 18 in some specified hazardous occupations
	Minimum age 18 for work in any occupation determined hazardous for such minors by a specified state administrative agency	19 states and D.C. have a state administrative agency with such authority (Ariz., Colo., Fla., Conn., Kan., Mass., Mich., N.J., N.Y., N.C., N.D., Ohio, Okla., Ore., Pa., Utah, Wash., W. Va., Wis.)
Maximum daily hours	8-hour day for minors *under* 18	11 states and D.C. have an 8-hour day for minors *of both sexes* up to 18 years (Calif., Mont., N.J., N.Y., N.D., Ohio, Ore., Pa., Utah, Wash., Wis.); 8 other states have this standard *for girls* up to 18 (Ariz., Colo., Ill., Ind., La., Nev., N.M., Wyo.); in S.C. the enforcement of an 8-hour day for employees of both sexes in textile mills has been enjoined
Maximum weekly hours	40-hour week for minors *under* 18	2 states (Wis., N.J.) have established a 40-hour week for minors *under* 18. In S.C. the enforcement of a 40-hour week for employees of both sexes in textile mills has been enjoined. Wis. has a 24-hour week, and Fla., N.C., R.I., and W. Va. have a 40-hour week for children *under* 16. 3 states (Ore., Pa., Utah) have a 44-hour week for minors *under* 18; 4 other states (Miss., N.M., N.Y., Va.) have a 44-hour week for minors *under* 16
Night work	13 hours of night work prohibited for minors *under* 16; 8 hours of night work prohibited for minors 16 *to* 18	12 states meet this standard (Iowa, Kans., Ky., N.J., N.Y., N.C., Ohio, Okla., Ore., Utah, Va., Wis.) 8 states and D.C. meet this standard (Ark., Calif., Conn., Kan., Mass., N.J., Ohio, Wash.)
Employment certificates	Required for minors *under* 18	20 states and D.C. require employment or age certificates for minors *under* 18 (Calif., Fla., Conn., Ga., Ind., Mass., Mich., Mont., Nev., N.J., N.Y., N.C., Ohio, Ore., Pa., Tenn., Utah, Wis., and, where continuation schools are established, Okla., Wash.) One state (Ala.) requires such certificates for minors *under* 17

Considering all of these factors, and also the trend in child labor as revealed by work permit figures and as seen in field studies conducted by the National Child Labor Committee and other organizations, the best rough estimate that can be made at the present time would place the number of children under sixteen years gainfully employed somewhere between 750,000 and 900,000.

These children can be classified in three groups:

1. *Agriculture.* By far the greatest number, probably between 500,000 and 600,000, are employed in agriculture.[6]

2. *Intrastate Employment.* Industrial occupations probably utilize from 60,000 to 80,000 children under sixteen years, including both fulltime workers and those who work outside of school hours. . . .

3. *Street Trades.* Street traders under sixteen years—newsboys, magazine salesmen, bootblacks, peddlers, etc.—form another large group, probably numbering from 250,000 to 400,000. The wide variation in this estimate is due to the fact that the great majority of "street traders" are boys selling and delivering newspapers and there is a discrepancy in figures as to their number compiled by the International Circulation Managers' Association in 1934 and in 1938. . . .

In addition to these three-quarters of a million or a million child workers under sixteen years, the employment of minors sixteen and seventeen years of age must be considered part of the child labor problem. . . .

According to the Census nearly 1,500,000 boys and girls of sixteen and seventeen years were gainfully employed in 1930, of whom about a third were in agriculture.[7]

In 1940, according to the Statistical Abstract, 211,469 children fourteen and fifteen years of age were actually employed, while 38,052 others were seeking employment. Of those sixteen and seventeen years of age, 740,153 were employed and 289,138 were seeking employment. The conditions of the Second World War greatly increased the number of young people below eighteen who were gainfully employed. This reached its maximum in 1945 when 1,000,000 fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds and 2,000,000 sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds were employed, making a total of 3,000,000. Between 1945 and 1949 there was a steady decline, but even in 1949 the number was still much higher than in 1940. The changes in the status of young people gainfully employed

[6] Zimand, Gertrude Folks, "Child Labor Facts," p. 8, National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1940.

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 10–11.

have been so great and the practices in different sections so varied as to emphasize to those concerned with guidance the value of securing the exact provisions of child-labor and school-attendance laws in their state and city and of investigating carefully the amount and character of child labor in their particular locality.

III. ELIMINATION AND RETENTION

1. *Value of Facts of Elimination.* The general facts of retention and elimination of pupils should receive very careful consideration. The school officials in each city should carefully assemble data over a considerable period of years, showing changes in enrollment by grade and by age, amount of elimination and where it occurs, and causes of elimination. These data will furnish a splendid factual basis for the analysis of conditions and for singling out certain places for special study. These should be organized in such a way as to show tendencies; these can be shown best by arranging the material in the form of charts or graphs. Some facts showing general conditions are given in order to illustrate the method proposed and to show the tendencies in the country as a whole.

2. *Changes in Enrollment.* The general situation regarding enrollment is shown in Figs. 7 to 9 on pages 24 to 26. The tremendous increase in enrollment in American secondary schools and colleges during the past twenty years is one of the outstanding educational facts of the world. Some regard it as merely temporary and as even dangerous. Counts,[8] however, shows clearly that it is founded upon deep-seated economic and social conditions and will tend to increase rather than diminish. If this is true, guidance will be profoundly affected in both amount and general character.

3. *Changes in Elimination.* The changes in the curve of elimination still further emphasize this tendency. This may be shown by a consideration of the data from a single city. Figure 20 shows the changes in the percentage of elimination in St. Louis for different years.

In this chart we see the curve at its steepest in 1893–1894. After this it flattens out, showing the gradual increase in the

---

[8] COUNTS, GEORGE S., "Secondary Education and Industrialism" (the Inglis Lecture, 1929), Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1929.

holding power of the upper grades. This is a phenomenon seen in all parts of the country. More pressure is brought to bear to keep children in school and methods are adapted more fully to meet the needs of pupils. The peculiar "hump" in the seventh
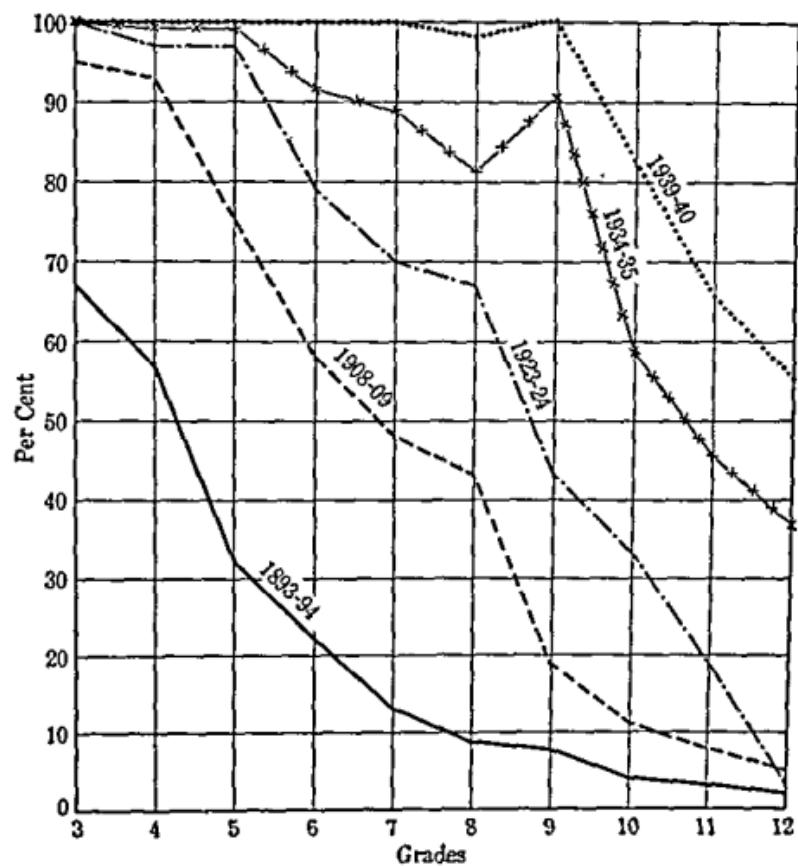
Fig. 20. Changes in curve of elimination in St. Louis.

and eighth grades in the year 1923–1924 is due partly to the introduction of the junior high school and partly to the introduction of vocational schools that admit pupils from the sixth and seventh grades. In recent years, as seen in the curves for 1934–1935 and 1939–1940, this hump continues through the ninth grade, showing a marked increase in the power to hold pupils through the junior high school.

4. *Grade at Leaving School.* Another source of light upon this question is the comparison of the grades completed by those who dropped out of school. The Junior Employment Service

in Philadelphia [9] made a study of the sixteen- and seventeen-year-old pupils who dropped out of the Philadelphia public schools between January, 1937, and June, 1938. It was found that the median grade completed was the ninth; more than 80 out of 100 had not gone beyond the ninth grade; about 20 out of every 100 had not completed the seventh grade. Although this study was confined to the sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds and assumed that no pupil below sixteen had dropped out of school, it is very significant because it shows that of the 8,048 sixteen- and seventeen-year-old pupils not one had completed high school and only five had reached the lower half of the twelfth grade.

In the year 1939–1940, the median grade of the dropouts of all ages and from all causes except completion of high school and vocational school was the lower ninth. Nearly 80 out of 100 had not gone beyond the ninth grade; nearly 40 out of 100 had not gone beyond the sixth grade.

5. *Elimination by Age.* It is also desirable to secure data on the ages at which elimination occurs. This can easily be done in most school systems. In the study of dropouts from the Philadelphia schools previously mentioned, the median age at leaving school was sixteen years three months. Since the compulsory-attendance age up to that time was sixteen years, it is evident that the three-fourths of those who dropped out left school within less than half a year after the completion of the age required for attendance. In the St. Louis schools the median age of the dropouts was fourteen years five and one-half months; nearly 80 out of 100 were sixteen or younger; only 10 out of 100 had reached the age of eighteen. From these studies it is evident that the school is doing very little to help the great majority of dropouts to plan either their educational or their vocational futures. A definite knowledge of the facts of elimination will reveal the danger points and the needs, and will materially help us to give the help that is so much needed.

6. *Causes of Elimination.* Probably the most important set of facts regarding elimination is that relating to the causes of leaving school. It is here that we meet with the greatest difficulty. As shown on pages 137 to 143, school records are very

[9] PAVAN, ANN, Supervisor, "When Philadelphia Youth Leave School at 16 and 17," Junior Employment Service of the School District of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, 1941.

unreliable on these points; they are usually based upon the word of the pupil, which is often very untrustworthy. Many such studies have been reported, and the results are very similar. The causes of elimination from school are many and varied. There is probably no one cause for most cases of dropout; causes are interrelated in ways that often defy definite classification. The following groups of causes are usually reported and give a fairly accurate picture of the situation:

1. Home conditions such as illness at home, help needed at home, lack of home cooperation.

2. Economic and social conditions, such as earnings needed by home, inability to provide suitable clothing, books, etc., racial discrimination.

3. School conditions, such as incompetent instruction, lack of proper stimulation, lack of adequate facilities, overcrowded classes, curriculum inadequacies, lack of guidance service, lack of special classes.

4. Personal conditions, including lack of mental ability, lack of effort, excessive absences, poor study habits, inadequate reading ability, desire to be economically independent, dislike for school.

In that illuminating study of a Middle Western city called Middletown [10] a partial follow-up study of these causes was made and some interesting results were obtained.

A number of mothers who said that a child had left school because he "didn't like it" finally explained with great reluctance, "We couldn't dress him like we'd ought to and he felt out of it," or "The two boys and the oldest girl all quit because they hated Central High School. They all loved the Junior High School down here, but up there they're so snobbish. If you don't dress right you haven't any friends." "My two girls and the oldest boy have all stopped school," said another mother. "My oldest girl stopped because we couldn't give her no money for the right kind of clothes. The boy begged and begged to go on through high school, but his father wouldn't give him no help. Now the youngest girl has left 10B this year. She was doing just fine, but she was too proud to go to school unless she could have clothes like the other girls." *The marked hesitation of mothers in mentioning these distasteful social distinctions only emphasizes the likelihood that the reasons for their children's leaving school summarized above understate the real situation in this respect.*

[10] LYND, ROBERT S., and HELEN M. LYND, "Middletown," pp. 185–186, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1929.

All other attempts to follow up the causes given have had the same result—to decrease materially the percentage of those who left because of economic necessity and to increase the percentage of those who left because of some reason connected with the school or of social difficulties that are remediable.

We should also analyze the withdrawals with respect to scores in intelligence tests, scholastic standing, and school difficulties of a more personal sort, such as adjustment to the school or trouble with teachers, if we wish to get any adequate idea of the real causes of elimination.

All these facts are of such vital importance that every school should carefully prepare from year to year comparative data of enrollment, elimination, and causes of withdrawal and have them in such form that the significance of the data may be clearly seen and steps taken to meet whatever situation arises.

REFERENCES

1. DEFFENBAUGH, WALTER S., and WARD W. KEESECKER: Compulsory School Attendance Laws and Their Administration, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 4, Washington, D.C., 1935. A useful compilation of compulsory-attendance laws with interpretation and suggestions.

2. DIAMOND, NORENE M.: State Child-labor Standards, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, Bulletin 114, September, 1949. A summary of labor standards and school attendance laws for minors under eighteen years of age.

3. DILLON, HAROLD J.: "Early School Leavers: A Major Educational Problem," National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1949. Describes the extent and causes of leaving school.

4. KEESECKER, WARD W.: Laws Relating to Compulsory Education, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1928, No. 20, Washington, D.C., 1929. Contains material and suggestions that are still very helpful.

5. NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE: "Child Labor after Ten Years of Federal Regulation," National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1948. Gives not too encouraging data on the results of Federal legislation.

6. PAVAN, ANN, Supervisor: "When Philadelphia Youth Leave School at 16 and 17," Junior Employment Service of the School District of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, 1941. A stimulating study of conditions in Philadelphia, and the needs revealed by the study.

7. PROFITT, MARIS M., and DAVID SEGEL: School Census, Compulsory Education and Child Labor, School Laws and Regulations, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1945, No. 1, Washington, D.C., 1945. A collection of material like that of reference 1.

8. WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN IN A DEMOCRACY: "Recommendations," Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, Washington,

D.C., 1940. A valuable document giving basic principles upon which child-labor laws should be based.

9. ZIMAND, GERTRUDE FOLKS: "Child Labor Facts," National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1940. Contains background material showing the history of child-labor laws, brief discussions of state and Federal laws, and descriptions of present conditions.

METHODS OF SECURING AND ASSEMBLING FACTS ABOUT COURSES OF STUDY, SCHOOLS, AND COLLEGES

I. PROCESS OF FACT FINDING

One of the most important parts of the entire guidance program is concerned with securing and organizing in usable form the essential facts about educational opportunities. Although it is usually not difficult to secure and assemble such facts, many schools neglect it entirely.

We are again confronted with the difficulty of separating the three functions of guidance: (1) finding facts about the individual, (2) finding facts about courses and schools, and (3) guiding the student. We should continually keep in mind that these functions are not separate even though we may discuss them separately. Facts about courses and schools are gathered by teachers or counselors and by the students themselves. There are also two different ways of obtaining facts about courses and schools: We may obtain the more or less formal facts by investigating printed courses of study, college catalogues, and other documentary material. There are other facts, no less important, that can be obtained only by actual experience in the courses and schools themselves, or in situations that are similar to the courses and schools to be entered later, that is, in orientation courses, preview courses, vestibule courses, or other exploratory and try-out courses. When these methods are used, it is impossible to separate the fact-finding process from the guiding process, and finding facts about courses and schools enables us to find facts about the students. Separation of the two functions will usually result in ineffective fact finding and ineffective guidance. For the purposes of this discussion we shall confine our attention to the function of finding facts about courses, schools, and colleges. We shall stress the methods of securing such facts as may be

found in courses of study, college catalogues, and other sources, and merely call attention to the activities which are exploratory in nature and which must be used to supplement the other information. Since these exploratory activities are so intimately connected with the process of guiding the student, they will be considered more in detail in Chap. XIX.

II. TYPES OF IMPORTANT FACTS REGARDING SCHOOLS

In order to have a starting point for guiding a student regarding educational opportunities we must know something about these four important topics:

1. Values of further schooling for the individual and for the state.
2. Types of schools open at each stage.
3. Purposes, qualifications for entrance, costs, etc., of each type of school.
4. Analysis and evaluation of courses and of general facilities of the schools next ahead.

Most of these facts are easily secured and are often provided in convenient form; others are more difficult to secure and usually need special investigation; some can be obtained by consulting catalogues and other documents; some can be obtained only by previous courses or other exploratory activities.

III. FACTS ABOUT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. *Increasing Importance of the Secondary School.* The tables given on pages 253 and 254 show that forty-one states require young people to attend school at least through the elementary grades unless otherwise exempt, and thirty-one states require the completion of the sixth grade before working certificates are issued. Although compulsory-attendance laws are by no means always strictly enforced, the Census of 1940 showed that over 95 per cent of all children thirteen years old were in schools of some kind and that nearly 93 per cent of those who were fourteen years old were in school. In 1948 the percentages were 97 for thirteen-year-olds and nearly 95 for fourteen-year-olds. This general trend is well shown by Fig. 20. According to this, all children were in school through the seventh grade, practically all through the ninth grade, and more than half had completed the high school. We can confidently look forward to the time

when the large proportion of our boys and girls will secure the equivalent of a high-school training, and all will complete the junior high school. It thus becomes increasingly important that all boys and girls should learn about the opportunities offered in the junior and senior high schools. Since most states do not require the completion of more than the sixth grade for exemption from school attendance or for granting the working certificate, it seems evident that some of this information should be given to students not later than the sixth grade in order that all may know what opportunities are open to them. Here, again, we should emphasize the fact that guidance is a function that is not confined to any one place in the school system. It should be regarded as a continuous process, giving help whenever the pupil needs help, in every grade of school, at every point where decisions need to be made.

2. *Information Required for the Sixth Grade.* There should be available in the sixth grade definite information about the junior-high-school facilities, the location of the schools, the courses of study with the purposes of each, the school life and activities. These can usually be obtained from the office of the superintendent. When these are not available, the information can easily be secured from the junior high schools themselves. In addition to this information, there should be available the same type of information regarding other types of schools, part-time, evening, etc., where pupils who cannot go on to junior high school can secure help. Sixth-grade teachers should also know something about the educational qualifications necessary for entrance into certain occupations so that they may assist pupils who are expecting to leave school at the end of the sixth grade and who wish to enter occupations for which further education is necessary.

3. *Information Required for the Junior High School.* As usually arranged, the greater part of this form of guidance is done in the junior high school, itself. The nature of the organization of the school lends itself to such a plan. The facts about the junior high school are usually well selected and organized and presented in the form of printed circulars or pamphlets. These vary from simple statements of the courses offered, showing required and optional work, to very elaborate folders describing

the various offerings, giving attractive pictures of classes in operation, with descriptions of student activities and general school life. A good example of a simple folder is that used in the Baltimore schools, called "Yours to Choose." In connection with each course is given a list of occupations for which the course is supposed to prepare. Schools that do not have such pamphlets can easily prepare them as a cooperative enterprise.

Junior-high-school teachers should also have similar information regarding the senior high school. The choices usually offered in the ninth grade necessitate information regarding the courses offered in the next school. These are also usually already assembled by the school authorities and present the same variation in elaborateness as seen in the junior-high-school pamphlets. One of the best known is that published in Cleveland and entitled "Illustrated Course of Study." This presents in attractive form facts about the courses of study and also about school life and activities. In many schools the home-room teachers or the guidance staff prepare pamphlets giving such information in mimeographed or printed form.

The farther up we go in the school the more important it is to have very definite and detailed information about other types of school available to the pupil. Teachers should have at hand definite information about private secondary schools. Much of this information may be obtained in Sargent's "Private Schools."[1]

Business colleges and various other types of vocational schools should be listed and their purposes and requirements for admission clearly indicated. Several such lists are now available. Many of these not only give names and locations of vocational schools but describe in detail the entrance requirements, the general nature of the work offered, and other points of interest to the pupil. The list of schools approved for the training of veterans, compiled by each state, are helpful. Care should be taken to make sure that the information is up to date, for these schools change constantly. The state directors of guidance should have such information for the schools in their respective states. Much valuable information is compiled from time to time by the U.S. Office of Education.

---

[1] SARGENT, PORTER, "Private Schools," Porter Sargent, Boston. Issued annually.

4. *Senior High School.* If the work of the junior high school has been well done, the students entering the senior high school will already have most of the information they need about the school, but it is hardly safe to depend upon this, for the junior high school may not have done its work well or the students may have forgotten the information they have received. Those in charge of guidance in the senior high school should have the same types of information regarding the offerings of the senior high school and of other schools as that just described for the junior high school. This is necessary in order to make sure that the new student is properly adjusted to his new environment and to make it possible for him to change to another type of school if the school he has entered does not meet his needs. In looking up information regarding private college-preparatory schools it would be well to secure from the different regional accrediting associations [2] the lists of schools accredited for college. The U.S. Office of Education issues a bulletin listing public high schools and their accreditation.

5. *Informational Value of Exploratory and Tryout Courses.* In addition to the facts gathered together by teachers and students from various sources, other facts gained from personal experience are utilized. Some of these are obtained from general courses such as those offered in the junior high school. These general courses in science, mathematics, language, and social studies are designed to give the student a preview of more advanced and definitely organized courses and to show him something about the nature of the work in the school or class next ahead.

The various clubs give him additional experiences from which he can secure much valuable information about school life and requirements. Not infrequently students in the junior high school are invited in a body to the senior high school, and every care is taken to show them what the school is like and to give them a basis for deciding whether they wish to continue their schooling or not.

[2] These are The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

IV. FACTS ABOUT COLLEGES

1. *Important Facts about Colleges.* One of the most important tasks of the senior high school is to secure important facts about colleges and to organize them in such a way that they can readily and easily be used. What are the facts about colleges that it is important for the high-school student to know? The following list comprises the most important types of information that should be available.

1. Cost:
   a. Tuition.
   b. Board.
   c. Room.
   d. Minimum expense.
   e. Fees (most important).
   f. Scholarships, etc.
   g. Chances to earn.
2. Standing of colleges.
3. Kind of institution:
   a. College or university.
   b. Coeducational, etc.
   c. Size.
   d. Sectarian or not.
4. Admission:
   a. Methods.
   b. Requirements, etc.
5. Special courses.
6. Degrees.
7. Student activities including athletics.
8. Location.
9. Physical surroundings.
10. Physical equipment.
11. Strong departments.
12. Honors courses.
13. Personnel organization.

Most high schools do not have information regarding all these points. It is easily possible for any school to secure college catalogues and other material describing the college and its facilities and to keep them up to date from year to year. Most colleges will also furnish copies of the college annual and the college handbook, both of which give much useful information not given in the catalogues. Many schools secure information about admission requirements from various colleges to which their students ordinarily go and organize them in the form of charts so that differences and similarities may be seen at a glance.

2. *Collections of Information.* The best collection of information about colleges now available is that compiled and printed by the American Council on Education.[3] This contains a description of nearly all the universities and colleges throughout the United States. Among the items described are (1) name; (2)

[3] BRUMBAUGH, A. J., editor, "American Universities and Colleges," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948.

general character; (3) endowment; (4) size of grounds, number of students, and value of buildings, grounds, and equipment; (5) library and laboratory facilities; (6) admission requirements; (7) courses offered and degrees; (8) fees and other expenses; (9) facilities for self-help; (10) date of beginning and closing sessions. A separate list and description of professional schools are given under the headings, Law, Medicine, Engineering, Education, etc. The information may be regarded as accurate for the year in which it is compiled, because it was presented by the colleges and universities themselves. This book should be in every high school and should be constantly referred to by teachers and counselors.

The same information should also be secured for normal schools, teachers' colleges, and schools where special types of training are offered, such as art and music.

Although some of this information is very useful and very essential for the junior high school, it is the especial task of the senior high school to collect and organize it so that it may be readily used.

Aside from the regular college-preparatory classes in the high school, it is quite difficult to find opportunity for much tryout and exploration. Some schools do make an attempt to prepare students for the life at the college by teaching them how to take notes, how to schedule time, etc. Some parents send their children to a boarding school for a year or two before sending them to a college in order to make the transition from home care to college life more gradual. This semi-independent boarding-school life does, in a way, provide for exploration and tryout in a situation that is something like college life.

The chief means of providing for exploration is in the college itself. Many colleges have organized preliminary, preview, or orientation courses for freshmen. These are extremely varied in their nature and purpose. Some base their work upon science, others upon history or social studies in general. All attempt to give the beginning student a bird's-eye view of the major fields of human activity so that he may properly orient himself both in his choice of studies in college and in his outlook upon life. These courses often give definite facts about college life and college requirements that materially help the student in adjusting himself to his new life.

Freshman Week, described on pages 414 to 416, is also very helpful in giving useful information. The annual field days organized by various colleges for interscholastic sports, although very inadequate for the purpose of exploration and often top-heavy on the athletic side, do help the high-school student to get some idea of the college and of college life. These are very inadequate but are only the beginnings and show, at least, that schools and colleges are beginning to recognize the need for giving the prospective college student adequate information of all kinds in order that his choice may be a wise one.

V. FACTS ABOUT OTHER TYPES OF SCHOOLS

The same types of information should be assembled regarding other kinds of schools, such as art schools, conservatories of music, or schools for the training of nurses. Many professional and semiprofessional schools have developed within the past decade and have met a real need. These vary greatly in purpose, standing, and equipment, and facts regarding them can readily be obtained and made available to students.

REFERENCES

1. ANDERSON, RUTH E.: A Bibliography of School and College Information, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin* 32, November, 1948. An excellent source.

2. BRUMBAUGH, A. J., editor: "American Universities and Colleges," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948. A standard directory of universities and colleges. Lists and describes all accredited colleges and professional schools and gives the most important facts about each.

3. CHAMBERS, M. M., editor: "Universities of the World outside U.S.A.," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1950. More than 2,000 institutions in over 70 countries and about 700 universities are described with useful information on each.

4. "The College Blue Book," Burckel, Christian E., and associates, Yonkers, N.Y., 1950. Sixth revision. A standard reference on higher education.

5. COXEN, JAMES R., and LUCILE ALLEN: "Directory of Federally Aided All-day Trade and Industrial Education Programs," *U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous 2375,* Washington, D.C., 1940. Lists, by states, public schools offering Federally aided all-day programs in 1939 in various vocational fields.

6. FEINGOLD, G. NORMAN: "Scholarships, Fellowships and Loans," Bellman Publishing Company, Inc., Boston, 1949. A useful compendium of information.

METHODS FOR THE INVESTIGATION OF OCCUPATIONS·

I. Two Functions of Occupational Investigation

In this chapter, as in Chap. V, we must clearly distinguish between (1) the function of securing facts as a background for the counselor, providing the *materials* for guidance; and (2) the function of studying occupations by the students themselves, as a *method* of guidance. They are both essential parts of the guidance program. The former is concerned with assembling data that can be used to guide the student; the latter is an essential part of the process of guiding the student. He investigates occupations in order to learn about them and to get a better idea of the value of securing facts about them before he makes a choice. By doing this he also obtains some little training in methods of getting at the facts. In this discussion, we are concerned with the methods of securing and assembling facts about occupations that are useful to the teacher or counselor as a background for guidance, to assist in the process of guiding the student. The other function, that of the investigation of occupations by the students themselves, will be described in Chap. XIX.

II. Essential Facts about Occupations

1. *Difficulties of the Task.* The problem of securing information about occupations is at once beset by many difficulties. The number and variety of occupations are so great and the kinds of work done in occupations listed under the same name are often so unlike that it is difficult to get at data that are accurate and reliable. Many occupations do not stand still long enough to be studied. As soon as you have facts about them at any given time, the occupations change and the facts are out of date and have lost much of their value. Investigation into occupa-

tions, like all other social investigations, cannot usually be safely undertaken on any large scale by teachers and counselors; it is the job of the expert. It is, however, very essential for guidance workers to know (1) where to get facts, (2) how to distinguish between facts and fancies, and (3) enough about methods of research to conduct local investigations for supplementary data and to assist students in their investigations.

2. *Outline of Topics.* What sort of facts is it desirable to secure regarding occupations? As in the case of facts about individuals, we may say that, potentially, any fact may be valuable. But, obviously, certain facts are *always* more valuable than other facts, and some facts are *usually* more valuable. Many outlines of such facts about occupations have been made, and most of the essential points are matters of common agreement.

The brief general outline prepared by the U.S. Employment Service after years of study includes eight divisions as follows:

1. Job title.
2. Job summary—a general description of the job.
3. Work performed.
4. Equipment and material used.
5. Working conditions—surroundings, hazards, etc.
6. Relation to other jobs, promotion, transfer, etc.
7. Specialized qualifications.
8. Special information.

This is a very useful outline for general purposes but is not so well adapted to the use in schools as the more extended one which follows and which was prepared by the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association. This basic outline is the result of over ten years of study by the section and has been extensively tried out and revised.

BASIC OUTLINE[1]

1. History of the occupation.
2. Importance of the occupation and its relation to society.
3. Number of workers engaged in the occupation.
4. Need for workers—trends.

---

[1] Content of a Good Occupational Outline, The Basic Outline, *Occupations*, 19:21-23, October, 1940.

5. Duties.
  a. Specific tasks, other occupations with which this work may combined, nature of the work, tools, machines, and materials used.
  b. Definition of the occupation—as given by laws; as determined by official organizations; carefully formulated definition acceptable to those in the occupation.

6. Qualifications—sex; age; race; special physical, mental, social, and moral qualities; skills; special tools and equipment; legislation affecting workers.

7. Preparation—general education; special training, required and desirable; schools, etc., offering training; experience.

8. Methods of entering; use of special employment agencies.

9. Length of time before skill is obtained.

10. Advancement; line of promotion; opportunity for advancement.

11. Related occupations to which the job may lead.

12. Earnings—beginning, most common, maximum; regulations.

13. Hours—daily, weekly, overtime, shifts, vacation; regulations.

14. Regularity of employment—normal months, busy months, dull months, shutdowns of plant, cyclical unemployment.

15. Health and accident hazards.

16. Organizations—employers, employees.

17. Typical places of employment.

18. Supplementary information—suggested readings, magazines, films, pictures, other sources of information.

These outlines will serve to show the facts considered essential in the study of any occupation, and the facts that the counselor should have at hand when attempting to assist students in the study of an occupation or to assist them in any situation relating to occupational choice. It is, of course, not expected that the counselor will have all these facts committed to memory and ready for instant use. He should have them where he can get them quickly and ready for use when the need arises. Such an assembly of facts and references serves the counselor in the same way that books on medicine serve the physician, or reference books, the history teacher; they are sources for obtaining references—references to which he can turn when he needs certain reliable information.

III. Sources of Facts

Where can such facts be obtained? During the past twenty years this need has been recognized and many reliable studies of occupations have been made. It is not possible here even to list all of the material available, much less to describe the studies that have been made.

1. *Bibliographies.* Every counselor should have at hand bibliographies giving lists of occupational studies and where the studies can be obtained. One of the most reliable of these is the "Occupational Index," published by Personnel Services, Inc., which gives an annotated index to current literature and studies of occupations. A number of government agencies are issuing bulletins (some monthly, some less frequent) that give current information about occupations, and sources of bibliographies of surveys and studies of occupations. The Department of Labor, through its Bureau of Labor Statistics, collects information and issues a monthly bulletin on the status and trends in occupations. Its Women's Bureau issues bibliographies and reports of studies regarding occupations for women. The Children's Bureau of the Federal Security Agency (formerly of the Department of Labor) has useful information on occupations for youth. The U.S. Employment Service has furnished many aids for the study of occupations and the use of occupational material, among which is "The Dictionary of Occupational Titles and Job Descriptions." The U.S. Office of Education, through its Occupational Information and Guidance Service, has issued many pamphlets that are very useful in occupational study.

The detailed analyses of occupations contained in the Census of 1940 give a nationwide view of occupations and the relative numbers engaged in each. Many occupational surveys have been made by various national, state, and local private and public agencies. Many of these will be found in the bibliographical material listed on pages 283 and 284.

2. *Variability in Studies.* It will at once be seen that these studies are by no means all of equal reliability. Some are undeniably published for purposes of propaganda, many are organized in such a way as to appeal especially to certain types of person, and others have an eye chiefly to the profits that may come from the sale of the pamphlets. Great care should be taken

in the selection of the studies from which facts are taken and in the use made of what is secured. Some studies describe the general conditions of certain occupations; others report the particular conditions of a certain occupation in a certain locality. Some are job analyses of occupations. These analyses have been directed at three main points: (1) analysis of the activities of the workers—what they actually do; (2) the qualities, skills, etc., possessed by those working in the occupation; (3) the ways in which workers fail—difficulty analyses. All of these are important. Each makes a decided contribution to our understanding of occupational conditions, but, quite obviously, each one contributes in a different way, and great care should be taken to use each study in the particular way for which it was made and not to expect it to give us all the information we need regarding any occupation.

3. *Need for Supplementing Material.* These studies provide abundant material for the vocational counselor. The chief difficulty is that it is too abundant and somewhat too indefinite. There is need of much supplementary material in order to make the facts apply to local conditions and to keep up with the changes in wages and general conditions of employment. Here is the legitimate field for investigations by counselors themselves. Most counselors are not sufficiently well trained in the technique of occupational study and analysis to make it safe for them to rely entirely upon their own effort to obtain the necessary facts. It is possible for counselors to secure some insight into the methods used by experts by a careful study of some of the occupational investigations listed. It is quite desirable to secure, in addition to this, some definite training in research but, where this is not possible, the counselor may often obtain help and valuable criticism from some trained social worker. For example, suppose a counselor wished to receive up-to-date information about the conditions in the hosiery industry in his city. He would find some recent study made of this industry by a competent research worker. Conditions in this industry have probably changed even in the city where the study was made; the data given certainly would not apply equally well to any other city; but the technique used and the general facts and conditions would be very helpful if taken as a standard and a method. With these as a basis, the counselor could study the

conditions in his city, checking up both on the method used
and on the facts obtained. He would at once get into touch with
those who have the most reliable information on the hosiery
industry. This might be the Chamber of Commerce or some
local organization of those engaged in the industry; it might be
a civic research organization. With all these as helps, the coun-
selor would make personal investigations of certain hosiery
establishments. All this information would be checked up on
by comparison with the study made by the expert. The studies
would not always agree, of course, but any wide divergence
would be at once noted and care should be taken to check up
on the information obtained to see whether it was reliable.
Finally, it is usually possible to obtain the help and advice of
some research worker who is known to be reliable. Such experts
are glad to give whatever assistance is possible to those who are
really in earnest and who have actually undertaken some worth-
while study of an occupation. This help can be given either by
correspondence or by personal consultation; the latter method
is usually much better.

Special study is necessary to enable the counselor to make use
of the facts obtained by others. Some facts cannot be adequately
obtained or, at least, appreciated, by the methods described.
These are concerned with the general conditions under which
the work is performed. Such facts can be obtained only by
personal visits to the factory or shop. They can often best be
appreciated by actually taking a job for a limited time in the
occupation. This can often be done in summer vacation. The
facts and impressions obtained from such experience should be
carefully selected and recorded.

4. *Assembling Data.* Every school should have a carefully
selected list of the most reliable studies of occupations. These
books and pamphlets should cover a wide range of occupations
for men and women and especially those occupations or types
of occupations into which young people from the particular
locality usually go. These are for the use of the counselor as
sources of occupational information and for the use of students
both for class work and for individual help. If there is a good
school library with a trained librarian, this material may well
be placed in her charge either in general reference or on a special
shelf. Unless there is a special need for separating the books on

occupations from the other books in the library, it is probably better to keep them in their regular place. This will give students training in looking up sources of information in the way they will need to do it later in life in the larger and more complex city and university libraries.

The counselor should have, however, a special card catalogue of the most useful occupational studies from books, pamphlets, and magazines for ready reference. These cards should contain not only the usual library card information of author, title, publisher, date, library accession number, etc., but also a brief and careful analysis and evaluation of the study. Such a collection of cards will be of great assistance to the counselor and, if carefully made, will save much time. The annotated forms used in the "Occupational Index" and in the Occupational Information and Guidance Bibliography [2] will be found useful.

In addition to such a collection of studies on occupations, and a special card catalogue, the counselor should select from various studies important facts and assemble them in such form that they can be readily used in class work, for bulletin board display, and for individual consultation. Many of these can be arranged in charts and others in comparative tables. After such charts and tables are found in occupational studies, they can be copied and enlarged. Here is where the counselor can use the help of the students. The drawing teacher can usually be interested in the making of such charts, and the cooperation resulting not only makes it possible to provide helpful material for use but also may secure a wider interest in guidance work.

REFERENCES

In addition to the bibliographies of sources mentioned on page 280, the following books will be found helpful:

1. BILLINGS, MILDRED LINCOLN: "Group Methods of Studying Occupations," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1941. Describes methods of teaching about occupations and gives different types of sources.

2. BREWER, JOHN M., and EDWARD LANDY: "Occupations Today," rev. ed., Ginn & Company, Boston, 1949. A useful book on occupations in general, describing the types of information necessary for counselors.

3. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," International Textbook Company,

[2] Published by the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education.

Scranton, Pa., 1949. Chapter XV discusses this problem from the standpoint of the teacher.

4. FORRESTER, GERTRUDE: "Occupational Pamphlets: An Annotated Bibliography," The H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1948. A discriminating listing of useful pamphlets.

5. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P.: "Guidance Services in Smaller Schools," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950. Chapters 7 and 8 are very helpful.

6. HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON: "Guidance in the Secondary School," Chap. X, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. A brief but helpful discussion of types of occupational information and sources.

7. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," Chap. VIII, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. Contains valuable points of view regarding types of information necessary for the counselor and types of sources.

8. NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION, OCCUPATIONAL RESEARCH SECTION: Standards for use in Preparing and Evaluating Occupational Literature, *Occupations*, 28:319–324, 1950. A carefully prepared and authoritative report on desirable standards for preparing and evaluating occupational literature. Also published as a separate pamphlet.

9. "Occupational Index," Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, N.J. An up-to-date series of annotated lists of occupational material.

10. SHARTLE, CARROLL L.: "Occupational Information," Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1946. Contains much useful data on occupations for counselors.

11. STEAD, WILLIAM H., and W. EARL MASINCUP, editors: "The Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service," Public Administrative Service, Chicago, 1943. A report of the development of the Occupational Research Program from its inception.

12. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR. This Department is very active in preparing and distributing occupational information. For a list of these publications send to the Department for a complete bibliography. Some of the most active bureaus are (1) the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which publishes the "Occupational Outlook Handbook"; (2) the U.S. Employment Services, which compiled "The Dictionary of Occupational Titles and Job Descriptions" (Parts I and II revised, 1949), and (3) the Women's Bureau, which has compiled information on many occupations for women.

13. U.S. NAVY DEPARTMENT: "The United States Navy Occupational Handbook," Bureau of Naval Personnel, Washington, D.C., 1950. A manual for civilian guidance counselors and navy classification officers.

14. WILLIAMSON, E. G.: "Students and Occupations," Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1937. A good general book on occupations, written from the standpoint of the needs of pupils.

PART III

METHODS OF GUIDING STUDENTS

"As I have frequently remarked, the mind of man is very narrow and circumscribed, and when it attempts to do more than one thing at once, it only emabarrasses itself. I have always thought it never could thoroughly know two arts or professions; and when this was attempted, one of the two was sure to be imperfectly understood.

"Thus it seems to me, that it is requisite to set apart a number of sagacious and learned men, to examine and investigate into the mental qualifications and capabilities of young persons, in order to oblige them to make a choice of such sciences and professions, as would be most in accordance with their intellectual constitutions, and not to leave the matter to their own choice or direction. For in general cases, this choice will necessarily be an injudicious one, and will induce them to give a preference to some line of life which will prove less advantageous and useful to them, than if they were under the direction of suitable and qualified counselors.

"It would happen from all this, Sire, that you would have better workmen, and more finished workmanship, throughout your dominions, and persons who know better, than those at present, how to unite nature with art."

Quotation from a letter sent by Juan Huarte to King Philip II of Spain. BINGHAM, W. V., An Ancient Vocational Guidance Program, *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 4:23, October, 1925.

This represents the early point of view, too often held by many today.

GENERAL METHODS OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

I. General Scope of the Problem

1. *Function of Information in Guidance.* In Part II, we have discussed ways in which teachers, counselors, and principals may secure reliable information and assemble it so that it may be efficiently used. Obviously, this is very important, but it is entirely preliminary to the actual guidance of students. The shelves of offices may be entirely filled with facts about students, schools, and occupations, and the students be no better for it. The only reason for getting facts is to help individuals. The value of all our machinery set up for guidance is dependent upon the way in which the individual students are helped. The one thing of paramount importance, then, is the actual guidance of the student. Incidentally, it is by far the most difficult part of the undertaking.

2. *Variation in Methods of Guidance.* In the next ten chapters, we shall discuss methods of guiding students with relation to many of the critical problems that arise. Only incidental reference will be made to where or by whom this help can best be given. In the present state of the guidance movement, it would be difficult, indeed, to state with any degree of finality just what part should always be performed by the classroom teacher and what by the counselor. It is much more important to make clear the help that should be given than to attempt to decide by whom it shall always be done. The probabilities are that different schools will use different methods and employ different agencies for doing the same work. However, a brief discussion of the general methods of guiding pupils used very effectively in many schools may be of assistance at this point. These general methods are counseling, group guidance, and the clinical method.

II. Counseling

1. *Activities of a Counselor.* We should carefully distinguish between *counseling* and the various other things that a counselor does. This method of approach has been used in many studies. Some classic examples will be given merely for illustration. Edgerton,[1] in a study made in 1923 and 1924, analyzed by the questionnaire method the various activities of counselors in representative junior high schools, senior high schools, and part-time schools. He found these activities ranging from interviewing students to teaching classes in occupations, to finding jobs for students and following them up, to giving tests, to doing research work in the study of occupations. More recent investigations reveal much the same situation. It is sufficient here merely to point out the wide range of things counselors actually do. Edgerton's study makes a very valuable contribution by showing the conditions under which counselors work, but it does not tell us much about what counseling is. These members of the school staff with the name of counselors do many things, only a few of which are counseling. This is also shown in the account of a "dean's day" given on page 552. The mistake very frequently made in current guidance literature is to confuse the very important act of counseling with certain other duties, more or less transient, but some very important, of those who are called "counselors." Teachers do many things, as has been shown in the Commonwealth Study by Charters and Waples,[2] but by no means all of them can be classified as teaching. Teachers usually have to adjust shades, open windows, and clean blackboards; these activities are all very necessary, but they do not belong to the teaching process. This is also discussed in Chap. III under Guidance and Personnel Work. The probable cause of the misconception is found in job analyses of various industrial occupations. Plumbing is analyzed to see what are the activities involved; these activities are classified as the activities of the plumber and are called "plumbing." So why should we not do the same thing with the occupation of counselor or teacher? If we accept this we must say, then, that anything that the

---

[1] Edgerton, A. H., "Vocational Guidance and Counseling," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926.

[2] Charters, W. W., and Douglas Waples, "The Commonwealth Teacher-training Study," University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

counselor does is counseling and anything that the teacher does is teaching. The analogy is not a good one. This may be illustrated, if not proved, by resort to etymology. The verbal noun "plumbing" points to the noun "plumber" and means "that which the plumber does," "a plumber's occupation." Blacksmithing, in a similar way, points to the noun "blacksmith." But when we come to teacher we find the opposite true: "Teacher" points to the verbal noun "teaching" and means "one who teaches." So "counselor" is derived from "counseling" and means "one who counsels." If these words had the same connotation we could say, "plumber" is one who "plumbs"; "blacksmith" is one who "blacksmiths"; but we do not do this. In other words, in the case of teacher and counselor, the center and core of what they do is *teaching* and *counseling.* They are called upon many times to do a variety of other things: some of these are only remotely connected with this inner core of their work; sometimes these other duties even seriously interfere with their real work. On the other hand, practically everything that a plumber does is called "plumbing," whether this is wiping a joint, putting in a hot-water heater, removing an obstruction in the drain, putting on gutter spouts, keeping books, or sending out bills. The householder also does many things that the plumber does, but he is not called a plumber because this is not his chief job.

2. *Importance of the Distinction.* This distinction is not a trivial one; it is vital to the proper understanding and development of guidance work. Counselors are now so burdened with other work as to make it impossible to do counseling well. If we can focus the attention upon *counseling* as the center and core of the work, we shall do much to relieve the situation. Another point of equal weight is that the counselor is not the only person who does or who should do counseling. From the nature of the case, the classroom teacher must do much counseling about references, methods of study, and improvement of work as well as about personal habits and intimate problems of life. The home-room sponsor must counsel her students frequently; it is as vital for her job as it is for that of the counselor. The principal of the school, the athletic coach, everyone connected with the school, must do counseling at some time and on some occasions. Of course, we badly need to come to some decision with regard to the kind of counseling to be done by each one in the

system, but let us not forget that the activity of supreme importance is the act of counseling, no matter who does it. We must so guard it, organize it, and develop it that it is as effective as may be.

One result of the job-analysis method of approach is seen in the various activities that go under the name of "counseling." We even have "class counseling," used to describe what is done in a class of 40 to 100 by a counselor or home-room teacher where various things are discussed; or "group counseling," where matters are talked over by teacher and students in groups ranging in number from 5 to 30 either in classes or in home rooms. Counseling has such an intimate sound that it would seem advisable to limit it to that intimate, heart-to-heart talk between teacher and pupil. It is frankly admitted that it is difficult to draw the line sharply between the essence of what is done in the personal interview and what is done in small groups. But it is even more difficult to make any distinction between "group counseling" and the more modern forms of classwork. More and more we are discarding the formal recitation and substituting conferences where the atmosphere is informal, where students feel free to discuss, ask questions, and make contributions. If we could agree to use the term "counseling" for the more intimate individual interview or discussion, no matter who does it, counselor or teacher, we would do much to emphasize the importance of this activity.

3. *Analysis of Counseling.* The most intimate and vital part of the entire guidance program is counseling. Webster's Dictionary defines counseling as "consultation; mutual interchange of opinions; deliberating together." We may help to make clear what this activity is by telling what *it is not.* It is not lecturing or talking to the student. Many teachers come from a "conference" well satisfied with themselves; they say, "We have had a splendid discussion," when, as a matter of fact, the teacher did all the talking. That is not counseling. Counseling is not giving advice, although advice may be given. The wise counselor never gives advice except when it is impossible to avoid it. Some counselor wisely said, "It is never safe to give advice except when you know the other fellow will not follow it." A superintendent of schools once called up a friend over the telephone. He said, "I want to talk over this plan I am working out. I don't want

advice. I just want to talk it over with you." The remark was not especially complimentary to the friend, nor was the superintendent tactful, but he was right. Counseling is talking over a problem with someone. Usually, but not always, one of the two has facts or experiences or abilities not possessed to the same degree by the other. The process of counseling involves a clearing up of the problem by discussion; the counselor by skillful questioning brings out what the problem is and makes its implications clear; he often obtains facts from the student; he often gives facts to the student, but more often he gets the student to recall facts he already knows and so to arrange them as to show their significance in the solution of the problem. He suggests lines of study and investigation; he leads the student to see the relationship between various factors and suggests the importance of some facts not regarded by the student as significant. It is distinctly an educational process, often something after the manner used by Socrates.

The following adaptation of a definition of counseling by Wrenn gives in condensed form the essence of the activity or relationship: Counseling is a personal and dynamic relationship between two individuals, one of whom is older, or more experienced, or wiser than the other, who together approach a more or less well-defined problem of the younger, or less experienced, or less wise, with mutual consideration for each other to the end that the problem may be more clearly defined and that the one who has the problem may be helped to a self-determined solution of it.

4. *Counseling in Cincinnati.* A very good illustration of some of these points is given in the following quotation from the work in Cincinnati described by Miss Corre.[3]

Ninth-grade pupils, however, must often make a definite decision between high school and trade school, and such a choice, if intelligent, must in most cases be based upon a more or less definite choice of vocation.

Personal Records. In the first conference with the ninth-grade pupils the vocational counselor tries to secure a complete record of the child, his family background, his likes and dislikes, his plans for the future. She endeavors to find out whether or not his is a care-

[3] Corre, Mary P., Vocational Counseling, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine,* 7:159-163, January, 1929.

fully thought out plan, or whether it has been the result of undue persuasion on the part of family or friends. She suggests other occupations which his interests lead her to believe he may wish to consider, and tells him of ways in which he may prepare for these various occupations. The pupil is encouraged to find out more about the occupations which interest him; to talk with persons employed in the occupations; and to talk with his family concerning the length of time he may be allowed to spend in preparation. . . .

In the second conference the child's plans are further developed and often at this time he is ready to make a choice of occupation and the counselor can help him develop his plans for preparing and entering the occupation of his choice. To the child of superior ability the advantages of high-school training are stressed and he is encouraged to choose those subjects which will permit him to attend college some day should that then seem a wise plan. In some cases, conferences with parents are held to urge upon them the importance of further training for these young people of special ability, and, where necessary, scholarships are recommended. The child with meager ability is helped to make a plan suited to his needs, and others who are failing in their schoolwork, and who are unable or unwilling to improve, are encouraged and helped to find suitable work. . . .

Self-helps. The general policy of the vocational counselors at all times is not to force their plan upon the child but to lead him to think about his own qualifications and his relationship to various occupations and the training he needs to enter these occupations. Often the child has made a good plan but needs help in developing it; often he is at a loss as to where training may be secured for a definite occupation; perhaps he has never thought of the relation between a school course and the world of occupations; and frequently he knows little or nothing about occupations and has made no attempt to plan for the future. Occupational facts often persuade a child to give up a poor plan and to choose one more suited to his needs. For example, a boy with a low percentile rank who was failing in his work wanted to become a doctor, but when he learned that in order to do so he must graduate with credit from high school and then attend college for six years, he was willing to make a plan more suited to his ability.

Counseling is, then, the activity where all the facts are gathered together and all the experiences of the student are focused upon the particular problem to be solved by him, where he is given direct and personal help in solving the problem. It is not solving the problem for him. Counseling should be aimed at the pro-

gressive development of the individual to solve his own problems unassisted. It is help, keyed to the ability of each student; giving him just enough help to enable him to solve his own problems but not enough to make him dependent upon the counselor; just enough help to develop his ability to do his own thinking, so that he can solve the next problem more intelligently and solve it with less help than he had before. In many cases personal advice is not necessary at all. The facts assembled, the investigations of the student, and the class discussions give sufficient help so that the problem is already solved; the student makes his decision even without personal consultation with the counselor.

5. Miss Bragdon's Analysis. Miss Bragdon has described the situation well: [4]

What General Situations Demand Counseling? With the intercreation—or at least the interaction—of the counseling process in mind, what are the situations which call for treatment through counseling, rather than through any other part of a guidance program? We submit that the following situations are those which demand counseling particularly:

(1) *When the student needs* not only reliable information but an *interested interpretation of such information* which meets his own personal difficulties.

(2) *When the student needs a wise listener* with broader experience than his own, to whom he can recount his difficulties, and from whom he may gain suggestions regarding his own proposed plan of action.

(3) *When the counselor has access to facilities* for aiding in the solution of a student's problem to which the student does not have easy access.

(4) *When the student* is unaware that he has a certain problem but for his best development *must be aroused to a consciousness of that problem.*

(5) *When the student is aware of a problem* and of the strain and difficulty it is causing, *but is unable to define* and understand it.

(6) *When a student* is aware of the presence and nature of a problem, but because of a temporary strain and distraction *is unable to cope with it intelligently.*

[4] BRAGDON, HELEN D., An Analysis of the Process of Counseling, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 6:252-256, March, 1928.

(7) *When the student is suffering from a major maladjustment or handicap* which is more than temporary, one which demands careful diagnosis by a specialist and help over a long period of time.

Thus we have the counseling process meeting the following needs: (1) the need for an interested interpretation of information adapted to an individual problem, (2) the need for a listening, checking-up, and advising process, (3) the need for putting into motion aids to problem solution to which the student does not have easy access, (4) the need for arousing an awareness of problems existing but not recognized, (5) the need for defining problems recognized but not understood, (6) the need for a constructive action where the student needs help in coping with a problem, and (7) the need for help in definite major maladjustments.

6. Counseling Necessary in Every Grade. It is probably entirely unnecessary to say that counseling is not confined to any place in the school system. It is an individual thing and should be furnished whenever a problem arises, whether this is in the first grade, the seventh grade, the senior-high-school years, or the college.

III. INTERVIEW

1. Counseling and the Interview. The interview can hardly be called a general method of guidance as distinct from counseling, group guidance, and clinical methods; it is rather a technique of counseling and an essential element in clinical methods. It is by no means the whole of counseling, for counseling may take place very effectively in quite informal situations and in brief conversations. However, the interview is such an important technique that it seems best to consider it separately. The interview, by its nature, cannot be used in group guidance, and it is related to clinical methods only when there is a counseling situation, that is, when the contact is between the counselee and a single counselor. It is so intimately associated with counseling that the discussion of the techniques of the interview is more appropriate here than in later chapters.

2. Preparation for the Interview. The most effective interviews do not just happen, although the occasion for them may not always be definitely foreseen. There must be careful preparation in order that conditions may be as favorable as possible. Where possible, the need for the interview should be felt by the

student; he should come to the interview not as a requirement of the school—more or less distasteful—but with a problem of which he is dimly or clearly conscious and with the hope that he may secure help in its solution. This is often one of the most difficult parts of the guidance process. Many methods have been used to develop this sense of need. Group guidance activities may often be so organized as to contribute to this feeling. A disciplinary situation may be utilized for the same purpose. A "chance" conversation often lays the basis for the development of a sense of need for further help. The counselor who has a real interest in people and is sensitive to human reactions and situations, who is sympathetic, who has the confidence of the pupils, and who has a reputation for poise, good judgment, and lack of prejudice is by far the most important factor in this preparation of the pupil for the interview. Methods like the following are used with excellent results.

All of the seniors were called together in the auditorium during the homeroom period. The counselor explained to them the necessity of choosing an occupation for which one is fitted, showing them several books from the Vocational Guidance Library, and offering to lend them these books and to talk over any problem they wished to see him about.

Each one was then asked to fill out a specially prepared form. *Forty-two* expressed a desire for information on one or more occupations; *forty-six* said they had not yet decided what they wanted to do; and *fifty-eight* asked for an interview. . . . [5]

A really satisfactory interview cannot take place where there are the distractions of noise and constant interruptions or probability of interruptions. Therefore a place should be provided that is quiet, orderly, and apart. Separate rooms for counseling cannot be provided in many schools, but careful planning will often result in minimizing distracting elements. Principal, teachers, and pupils should be made to realize that interviews should never be interrupted except for the most urgent reasons. Sufficient time should be scheduled in order to avoid a sense of haste. The counselor should prepare for the interview by bringing together and reviewing all available data regarding the pupil

so that he may be able to follow up all clues and understand and interpret the statements of the pupil by means of the background of the data at hand. It is often advisable to make brief notes of important points from the background data to which unobtrusive reference may be made during the interview. The counselor should attempt to formulate problems, objectives, and plans for the interview. These should be purely tentative, for as the interview develops some other line of action may become more desirable. Each interview is unique and cannot be fully planned in advance. It is so essential that the counselor keep an open mind regarding the problem as the interview develops and that he accept the individual as he is that many do not think any planning is desirable. However, as in scientific investigations, hypotheses and plans often materially aid in the solution of the problem. It is only when the plan or hypothesis determines the data, the method of attack, or the conclusion, that it is undesirable. Another point of great importance in planning the interview is to remember that this interview is probably only one of several with the pupil. One usually cannot hope to arrive at a satisfactory solution in a thirty-minute period. Each interview should be considered as a step in the process of guiding the pupil and should be planned with reference to what has gone before and what is to follow.

3. *Techniques of Interviewing.* The analysis of the techniques of the interview in the Pasadena City Schools Guidance Manual is so concise, so comprehensive, and so practical, that it will be given here in full: [6]

a. Establish rapport. Feelings of friendliness, security, and mutual confidence are essential and should be established before the serious work of the interview begins. If rapport is lost during the interview, it should be regained before attempting fundamental study or planning. Methods of establishing rapport depend on the personalities and situations involved, and stereotyped suggestions cannot be given. The interviewer must be sensitive to the subtleties of a situation and resourceful in dealing with them. The emotional dependence or

---

[6] BENNETT, MARGARET E., "Manual for Teachers and Other Guidance Workers," pp. 100–102, Board of Education, Pasadena, 1941. Adapted in part from "Guide to Effective Interviewing," by Ella Mason Stubbs, Clinical Psychologist, Pasadena City Schools. (*Used by permission of the authors.*)

"crushes" of an adolescent should not be confused with rapport. The adolescent needs sympathetic understanding and affection as he is growing into adult status, and emotional attachment to an adult outside of the family may be a constructive experience if the adult helps him to grow up emotionally rather than himself using the admiration to feed his own emotional needs.

b. Interviewers should avoid evidences of fatigue, pressure, irritation, anxiety, or lack of ease or poise, and desirably should be free of these conditions as well as their manifestation!

c. Greetings should be cordial, pleasant, businesslike, without display of authority, and should reveal concentrated interest in the student's problems. Friendly conversation about topics of mutual interest, or commendable achievement of the student, may be a desirable part of the initial greeting.

d. The major purposes of the interview should be mutually formulated early in the interview. Possible approaches may be

> (1) Tie-up with group-guidance activities or discussions that may emphasize the universality or common nature of his problem.
> (2) Direct, frank statement on either side.
> (3) Use of some inventory, test, or other form to objectify the discussion for a shy or diffident student.
> (4) Start with a difficulty or problem of which the student is aware and try to work toward other more basic or real problems as a student is ready.
> (5) Help student to approach the main issues himself rather than being told.

e. Keep control of the interview, but guide it unobtrusively. Work steadily toward the objective without dawdling; the interview is not a social visit; confine discussions to issues at hand. When necessary, ask a question or make a suggestion that will guide conversation back to the problem. Avoid antagonizing, embarrassing, or hurrying the student in expressing himself. A temporary shift in the discussion and a casual objective attitude on the part of the interviewer, or spontaneous laughter may help to relieve emotional tension.

f. Avoid a critical or condemnatory attitude, and moralizing. Surprise or disapproval will prevent frankness and an objective study of a problem. Do nothing to undermine the interviewee's self-respect. Even if his behavior is disapproved, he himself should be accepted. Neither ridicule nor condemn, but *try* to understand.

g. Help the student to come to grips with his problems, himself, do his own thinking, reach his own conclusions, and change his own

feelings and behavior. See that his thinking is challenged and that he has, insofar as possible, the needed facts and insights to make sound judgments.

h. Before the end of an interview, the student should have drawn up a reasonable plan of action for the immediate and remote future. At a particular stage in his problem solving, this plan may be chiefly one of further study of the problem, though it is usually desirable to have some specific, concrete activities mapped out. It is important to know when an interview should be terminated tactfully and when more time is needed for constructive help.

i. The student should leave the interview with the feeling of having had a satisfying and genuinely helpful experience, with increased self-confidence and a challenge to further activity, and should feel free to come again when he reaches the stage of needing more help.

j. No interview is complete before salient points are recorded. Emphasis should be laid on accuracy of recorded statement, accuracy in interpretation of data, and in distinguishing between real facts and impressions or inferences. Interpretation should never take the place of recorded facts; it should be separate from and in addition to facts. The interviewer must judge the essentials from the nonessentials and avoid jumping to conclusions. For this reason, recording should be immediate.

4. *Evaluation of the Interview.* It is well also to check up on the results of the interview as far as this may be possible. It is helpful to consider carefully whether all the conditions of a good interview were provided and what improvements may be made in subsequent interviews with the same pupil. Of course, the important point in the evaluation is the effect it has had upon the interviewee. By the nature of the case some of these effects will be extremely difficult to determine. Any attempt to probe into such effects may well prove fatal to the very thing we wish to accomplish; it is like "pointing a moral and adorning a tale." However, certain effects may appear more or less clearly. Among the points that should be investigated are the following:

1. Was there progress toward a recognition of the problem by the pupil himself? Was he willing to face his own problem frankly?
2. Did the interview help the pupil to become more self-reliant?
3. Has the interviewee voluntarily come for help again? Is his attitude toward the counselor cordial and friendly?
4. Has there been any subsequent improvement in the pupil's behavior?

5. Did the pupil carry out, or try to carry out, the plan mutually outlined?

The counselor should avoid undue optimism at the apparent success of the interview, for the observed improvement may be due to other causes than the interview itself. He should also not be too easily discouraged, for many effects are either delayed or not readily seen. A frank, calm facing of the situation and a continual effort to improve are essential to success.

IV. COUNSELING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY

The counseling methods used by some psychotherapists offer many helpful suggestions to the school counselor. Some of these vary greatly from the methods already described, and many counselors will not be able to accept all the fundamental assumptions implied in the methods. Psychotherapists, themselves, are not in complete agreement regarding either the assumptions or the methods. We shall here attempt merely to describe briefly the point of view and the methods of one school. The ideas and quotations that follow are taken largely from the stimulating book by Carl R. Rogers.[7]

1. *Purpose of Counseling.* — *non-directive*

Effective counseling consists of a definitely structured, permissive relationship which allows the client to gain an understanding of himself to a degree which enables him to take positive steps in the light of his new orientation.[8]

The aim [of counseling] is not to solve one particular problem, but to assist the individual to grow, so that he can cope with the present problem and with later problems in a better integrated fashion.[9]

Therapy is not a matter of doing something to an individual or of inducing him to do something for himself. It is instead a matter of freeing him for normal growth and development, of removing obstacles so that he can again move forward.[10]

[7] ROGERS, CARL R., "Counseling and Psychotherapy," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942. (*Used by special permission of the publishers.*)
[8] *Ibid.*, p. 18.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 28.
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 29.

It aims directly at the growth of the individual, at his increased independence and integration; it is centered on the individual and not on the problem. It lays stress upon the emotional elements, the feeling aspects of the situation rather than upon the intellectual aspects. It places greater emphasis upon the immediate situation than upon the past; much less upon the history of the case; it is not a process of case study, then treatment. Stress is laid upon the therapeutic relationship itself as a growth experience. In most other methods the individual is supposed to grow or change mostly after he leaves the interview. In this he grows during the interview and the counselor watches him grow and change.)

2. *Unsatisfactory Methods.* The following methods so frequently used are rejected as unsatisfactory and harmful: (1) ordering and forbidding; (2) exhortation—signing pledges and making promises; (3) suggestion, reassurance, and encouragement; (4) advice and persuasion; (5) explanation and intellectual interpretation. All these presuppose that the counselor is the one most competent to decide what goals the individual should have and what are the values by which the situation is to be judged. The counselor knows the answers; he knows best. Exhortation, while sometimes helpful, too often is followed by a relapse which is worse than the original condition. Suggestion denies the existence of the problem, and intellectual interpretation neglects the emotional factor. A person may know his conduct is wrong or that it will result in disaster, but this knowledge will not be effective in change of behavior. These methods are fundamentally opposed to the attitude of the psychotherapist, who believes that the purpose of counseling is to help the individual himself to determine the goal and the direction he should take to grow in ability to solve his own problems. Dr. Rogers even seems to feel that the goal must be self-determined by the individual, not merely accepted by him. He seems to believe or imply that there is in everyone not only an urge to solve his problem, but also the ability to solve it and all that is necessary is to release him from the obstacles that make it difficult for him to solve the problem, to make the adjustment. Many would not agree with this but feel that ability to solve the problems, to make adjustments whether in reading and arithmetic or in the

larger problems of life, is itself a growth and must be assisted positively, not merely negatively. The help must be given in such a way as to encourage growth in self-determination, but it must be given. <u>Non-directive or Client-Centered</u>

3. *Steps in Counseling.* <u>The different steps in the process, according to Rogers, may be summarized briefly as follows:</u>

R. Rogers (Dr.) 1. The individual comes for help. He has taken a tentative step.

2. The helping situation is usually defined. He is made aware at once that the counselor does not have the answers; the client is merely helped to work out his own answers. The counseling time is his, if he wants it.

3. The counselor encourages free expression of feelings in regard to the problem. He tries to keep from blocking (and even encourages) the flow of hostility and anxiety, the feelings of concern and of guilt, and the indecisions that come out freely if we have succeeded in making the client feel that the hour is his to use as he wishes. The counselor does not attempt to persuade the client that he is wrong or that he is right. He *accepts* him as he is. He merely tries to encourage free expression.

4. The counselor accepts, recognizes, and clarifies those negative feelings. The counselor must respond to the *feelings* of the client, not to the intellectual context of what the person is saying, not to the rightness or wrongness of the position or belief taken by the client. He tries to verbalize it and clarify it without undue sympathy.

5. When the individual's negative feelings have been quite fully expressed, they are followed by the faint and tentative expressions of the positive impulses that make for growth. This is one of the most certain and predictable aspects of the whole process.

6. The counselor accepts and recognizes the positive feelings which are expressed in the same manner in which he has accepted and recognized the negative feeling. They are not accepted with approval or blame.

7. This results in an understanding of and insight into the self and an acceptance of the self. This provides a basis on which the individual can go ahead to new levels of integration.

8. A clarification of possible decisions, possible courses of action.

9. The initiation by the individual of minute, but highly significant, positive actions. The client is not urged; he still is merely accepted and encouraged.

10. A development of further insight, a more complete and accurate understanding. This is a further element of growth.

11. Increasingly integrated positive action.

12. A feeling of increased independence, of decreasing need for help. (The relationship must terminate.)

These processes are not necessarily serial nor necessarily mutually exclusive. The method as a whole is often called "nondirective" as opposed to "directive," or "client-centered" as opposed to "counselor-centered." It has made a profound impression upon the entire approach to counseling and to guidance and personnel work. It is also affecting the training of counselors.

4. Limitations of the Method. In considering the methods just described it should be remembered that the psychotherapist does not claim that all cases of maladjustment should be treated in this way; it is only when the maladjustment is attended by serious emotional disturbance that these methods are indicated. It is, at best, only one of a number of ways or avenues through which we may help the maladjusted person. There are situations in which the nondirective approach is not as helpful as one that employs a modified directive method. The work of the school counselor should include all types of maladjustment, all kinds of problems, whether severe emotional disturbances are involved or not. In many cases some of the methods rejected by the psychotherapist may be effective, such as suggestion, exhortation, and intellectual interpretation. Often the only help needed is in connection with securing data on the problem.

Whatever may be the limitations of the methods described as applied to the everyday work of the school counselor, they offer many helpful suggestions with regard to both the end in view and the method of treatment. They are especially helpful because they stress the central place of the counselee and emphasize the primary purpose of counseling and guidance as development of the individual himself.

V. Group Guidance

1. *The Meaning of Group Guidance.* Some maintain that the term "group guidance" is a misnomer; that what is called group guidance is teaching. The line of thought leading to this conclusion is something like this: "Guidance is a personal service given to the individual, therefore it must be given to him alone; it cannot be given to him in a group." It is true that guidance

is a service to individuals, but it does not follow that it cannot be given in a group. There is no one who does not at some time receive valuable help from another person in a small or a large group. Restriction of the help we call guidance to a situation in which there are only two persons, the one who comes for help and the one to whom he comes, is quite arbitrary and incorrect. This would make guidance and counseling synonymous and would be far too restrictive. If we deny the accuracy of the term "group guidance," we must also reject "group instruction" and "group testing." Group instruction means help given to pupils in a group; it is opposed to *individual* instruction but it may still be *individualized* instruction. Group tests are tests given to individuals in a group; but the tests are none the less tests of each individual, not of the group. We also use the term "group therapy," in which the group itself helps each individual in the group to overcome difficulties and to remove maladjustments. The term "group guidance" is not only justifiable but has a very important and significant meaning. The distinction between teaching and guidance is, at best, rather nebulous. If teaching is helping the individual to secure facts, to develop habits, interests, and attitudes that are useful, then even the counselor teaches when he counsels. It is difficult to determine just where group guidance ends and group instruction begins. Perhaps the best statement of group guidance is: Group guidance is any group enterprise or activity in which the primary purpose is to assist each individual in the group to solve his problems and to make his adjustments.

An adequate guidance service that meets the needs of all students cannot be performed through counseling and individual contacts alone. As schools are now organized, counseling will continue to be largely remedial and deal with problems after they have arisen. No matter how well planned the counseling program is, there is need for the organization of group aspects of it. Group guidance, or guidance through group activities, includes all those forms of guidance activities that are undertaken in groups or in classes. It assumes, with reason, that there are not enough qualified counselors to provide adequate individual counseling for every pupil and, therefore, that some other means must be provided for reaching every pupil. It is also believed that certain forms of assistance can be given in groups

more effectively than individually. There are certain common problems confronting pupils that can advantageously be discussed among groups of pupils; the exchange of opinions and the different points of view presented are of material help to all the members of the class.

2. *Kinds of Group Guidance.* The groups utilized for this form of guidance are extremely varied. Among the more common ones are the following: (1) home rooms; (2) regular subject classes, especially orientation classes and classes in occupations; (3) the core-curriculum classes; (4) special groups organized for the consideration of special topics; (5) school assemblies; (6) conferences, such as career conferences or college night; and (7) clubs or other groups organized around common interests.

3. *Purposes of Group Guidance.* The purpose of this method of guidance has already been indicated to some extent. It gives an opportunity for the discussion of problems that are common to the group and develops an awareness that the problems are not peculiar to the individual but are shared by others.

Well-directed group study of common problems helps to develop perspective and wholesome objectivity in respect to the problem of the individual. It aids in the development of wholesome and helpful awareness of unrecognized needs and problems and thus lays the foundation, develops the need, and prepares the way for individual counseling. Group discussion of common problems enables each individual to understand how others feel about his own problem and to learn how others have met and solved the problem that now confronts him. It focuses collective judgment on problems that are common to the group. Students are often willing to discuss in a group problems that they are unwilling to discuss in private interviews. It gives them an opportunity to express their anxieties and relieve their pent-up feelings. Students may often accept ideas and suggestions that have been given by adults but rejected by them if they are offered again by members of their own groups.

The rather informal and free atmosphere of these group discussions provides an admirable opportunity for the teacher or counselor to observe each pupil as he reacts in a group situation and to learn some elements of his personality not revealed in any other way. Such groups are often the best place in which to give

certain types of test and to discuss the results and significance of the tests.

4. *Scope of Group Guidance.* The problems taken up in these group conferences are, naturally, extremely varied, covering all types of problems that have common elements or that may profitably be discussed in groups. Among these are problems relating to educational plans, adjustment to school and home, social situations, choice of lifework, getting a job, personality problems, economic and occupational problems, and many others. Special group investigations are initiated and brought to class for discussion.

5. *Techniques of Group Guidance.* The techniques used in group conferences are extremely varied. Informal discussions under the guidance of skillful leaders are among the best methods. These discussions should be very free but should be guided so that they are centered around desirable objectives and so that they may result in conclusions that will be helpful to the group. Panels, forums, committee reports, individual contributions, lectures, tests, dramatics, radio, and moving pictures: all are used to good advantage. The question box, if carefully organized and not too frequently used, is also a desirable technique, for it gives the shy and retiring pupil an opportunity to propose a question that is bothering him without revealing that it is his question.

The case-conference method is especially helpful. This has been well developed by R. D. Allen.[11] This method makes it possible to present the common problems of the young people in the group for study and discussion. Five steps are suggested and desirable in such a method. After the problem has been stated concretely by way of a case, the steps are (1) review by each pupil of his own experience in a similar situation; (2) guidance of the group away from the more immediate and temporary advantages to be gained and toward more remote and permanent values; (3) consideration of the effect of the proposed line of action upon others, the application of social thinking; (4) the discussion of possible exceptions, other conditions that should be considered in deciding upon a plan of action; (5) summarization in order to see what generalizations may be formulated that would be helpful in other situations. The entire process is really

[11] ALLEN, R. D., "Case Conference Problems in Group Guidance," Inor Publishing Company, New York. 1933.

an experience in social thinking. It has positive and unique values in the guidance program.

VI. CLINICAL METHODS

1. *Medical Clinic.* Recently, another method has come into prominence and is making a definite contribution to the effectiveness of the program. This is the clinical method. Unfortunately we are again confronted by a confusion of meanings. The term "clinic" has been taken from medicine and to most people signifies a place where poor people can go for free treatment; associated with this is the demonstration of the method of diagnosis and treatment to a class of medical students or physicians. This treatment or demonstration is usually given not by a group of specialists but by a single physician. The term is often used in the same way by psychologists. It is also frequently used in medicine to indicate a group of specialists in medicine, dentistry, nursing, occupational therapy, etc., who are associated together professionally and financially. Each has or may have his own private practice, but the close association makes it possible to utilize the other specialists for diagnosis and treatment. It is an association of specialists who bring to bear the resources of the entire group upon the diagnosis and treatment of patients.

2. *Child-guidance Clinic.* In the child-guidance clinic, specialists in psychology, medicine, psychiatry, social case work, and other lines are organized into a cooperative group and bring to bear upon each child presented for treatment the resources of the entire group. As in the medical clinic, they often treat poor children free or at low cost. However, they do not use their patients for demonstration purposes.

3. *"Clinical Technique."* Recently the term "clinic" or "clinical" has been used to describe a method of diagnosis and treatment whether used by a group or by a single individual, as "clinical psychologist," "clinical counselor." It is used to indicate the close diagnostic relationship between the client and the person or the group of persons who are attempting to help him. It is a transfer of the concept from a group of specialists who pool their resources, information, and opinions, to the *method* used by the group. It emphasizes completeness of diagnosis. This use of the term, while partly justifiable, is confusing at best, for it loses sight of the *coordinated action* of a group

as opposed to the technique of an individual. In fact, "clinical technique" is merely the scientific method applied to the diagnosis and treatment of individuals, and no new term such as "clinical" *seems* to be needed. It is the technique used by any good physician or any good teacher. As thus defined, anyone who uses this method *is* a clinician. Williamson,[12] in "How to Counsel Students," uses the term with this meaning. Williamson and Hahn [13] at first give the cooperative-group-of-specialists concept to "clinic," but immediately change back to the clinical-technique concept.

It seems much more appropriate and less confusing to reserve the term for a group of specialists who cooperate in helping the individual. The following description of the activities of the child-guidance clinic by the Educational Policies Commission [14] is in keeping with this concept:

> The child-guidance clinic brings together the teacher, parent, attendance worker, psychologist, and physician for consultation regarding the child with problems. The services of a psychiatrist may also be needed on occasion. The clinic studies the child from all angles. . . . When the causes of trouble are identified, the treatment is prescribed and the case followed up through the appropriate agencies of correction.

·4. *Guidance Clinic.* In many schools the guidance clinic is frequently used. The counselor, the visiting teacher, the homeroom sponsor, classroom teachers, the school or public health nurse, the psychologist, often the psychiatrist, and even the parent pool their resources in the diagnosis and treatment of the child. Each contributes what he knows and each helps in the interpretation of the data assembled. Schools where all these specialists are not available bring together all the personnel that can help. This does not take the place of individual counseling but does aid very materially in getting a picture of the pupil that is more nearly complete than can be obtained by

---

[12] WILLIAMSON, E. G., "How to Counsel Students," pp. 36–61, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939.

[13] WILLIAMSON, E. G., and M. E. HAHN, "Introduction to High School Counseling," pp. 15–19, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940.

[14] EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION, "Social Services and the Schools," p. 95, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1939.

any one individual, however capable, when working alone. It is a method that can be used in any school to increase the effectiveness of the guidance program.

REFERENCES

1. ALLEN, R. D., and MARGARET E. BENNETT: "Guidance through Group Activities," Chap. V, Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938. A condensed discussion of the meaning, purpose, and techniques of group guidance.

2. ALLEN, R. D., F. J. STEWART, and L. J. SCHLOERB: "Common Problems in Group Guidance," Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1933. A companion piece to reference 1. Describes in detail many typical cases that are suitable for the case conference method and gives suggestions for their treatment.

3. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION: "Sociometry in Group Relations," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948. Describes uses of sociometric devices and gives many examples.

4. ARBUCKLE, DUGALD S.: "Teacher Counseling," Addison-Wesley Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1950. Emphasizes the place of the teacher in guidance and advocates the nondirective technique. Verbatim reports of actual cases are given.

5. BENNETT, MARGARET E., and HAROLD C. HAND: "Group Guidance in High School," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. A manual for teacher-counselors, to accompany the Bennett-Hand Group Guidance Series. Suggestions on organization and methods of conducting group guidance activities.

6. BILLINGS, MILDRED LINCOLN: "Group Methods of Studying Occupations," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1943. This book will be found very practical on this topic.

7. BREWER, JOHN M., and EDWARD LANDY: "Occupations Today," Ginn & Company, Boston. Part III will be found especially helpful in questions related to occupational choice and job adjustment.

8. BROOKE, ESTHER E.: "Guide to Career Success," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947. Suggestions for attaining vocational success.

9. COMBS, ARTHUR W.: Non-directive Techniques and Vocational Counseling, Occupations, 25:261–267, February, 1947. A careful analysis of nondirective and directive techniques with cases to illustrate each method.

10. COYLE, GRACE H.: "Group Work with American Youth," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948. Basic assumptions regarding group work are discussed and many illustrations are given.

11. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949. Chapter XIX gives a good discussion of group techniques.

12. HAMILTON, GORDON: "Psychotherapy in Child Guidance," Columbia University Press, New York, 1947. Behavior patterns are described and case studies are given.

13. Hamrin, Shirley A., and Blanche B. Paulson: "Counseling Adolescents," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1950. Presents an eclectic approach to counseling.

14. Hoppock, Robert: "Group Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. A stimulating discussion of the techniques of group guidance, with samples of case conferences and other methods.

15. Kilby, Richard W.: Some Vocational Counseling Methods, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 9:173–191, Summer, 1949. Nondirective counseling is described and recommended.

16. Murphy, Lois B., and Henry Ladd: "Emotional Factors in Learning," Columbia University Press, New York, 1944. A stimulating description of clinical methods of guidance on the college level.

17. National Association of Secondary-school Principals: Curriculum in Inter-group Education, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin* 33, February, 1949. Gives samples of practices in intergroup work with bibliography.

18. Newsome, N. W., Harl R. Douglass, and Harry L. Dotson: "Group Guidance Textbook for Students," Monarch Book Company, Gunnison, Colo., 1948. Book 3, Grade 9, "Making a Choice"; Book 4, Grade 10, "Living with Others."

19. Rogers, Carl R.: "Counseling and Psychotherapy," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942. A clear and comprehensive discussion of one school of thought regarding the methods of psychotherapy with relation to counseling.

20. Slavson, S. R.: "The Practice of Group Therapy," International Universities Press, New York, 1947. Discusses general principles of group therapy and describes applications.

21. Stone, D. R.: Logical Analysis of the Directive, Non-directive Counseling Continuum, *Occupations*, 28:295–298, February, 1950. An attempt to show the relationship between the two methods.

22. Strang, Ruth: "Counseling Techniques in Colleges and Secondary Schools," rev. ed., Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Evaluates different types of techniques.

23. Warters, Jane: "High School Personnel Work Today," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. A practical and helpful discussion of group guidance.

24. Williamson, E. G., Chairman: "The Student Personnel Point of View," rev. ed., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1949. Foundation of the philosophy underlying college personnel work.

25. Williamson, E. G., and John D. Foley: "Counseling and Discipline," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Discusses discipline.

26. Wrenn, C. Gilbert, and Willis E. Dugan: "Guidance Procedures in High School," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950. Chapter II describes counseling and Chap. III group guidance.

27. Wright, Barbara H.: "Practical Handbook for Group Guidance," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1948. A book for the teacher-adviser.

METHODS OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

I. Functions of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work in the Elementary School

1. *Guidance as Chiefly a Function of the High School.* School guidance and pupil personnel work has been considered to be primarily a function of the junior and senior high schools. There are several reasons for this. The first, and most important, is the initial emphasis that was placed upon the vocational point of view. Guidance was concerned with choosing and preparing for an occupation and getting a job. This naturally located the area for guidance in that part of the school system where young people were about to leave the school, either to secure jobs or to go on to college or to some other type of further training. Important decisions were necessary and help was needed.

The second reason is found in the difference between the curriculum of the elementary school and that of the high schools. In the elementary school there is a simple curriculum, and all pupils take the same subjects. In the second year of the junior high school there is the beginning of differentiation leading to further, and often final, choices of different curriculums at the beginning of the senior high school. This necessitates very important choices involving the problem of going on to college or to some other type of school or of selecting the curriculum that will best prepare the pupil for a particular type of occupation.

A third reason is the difference in the organization of the teaching staff in the two schools. In the elementary school the prevailing practice is one teacher to a grade. This teacher teaches all subjects to all the pupils in his grade or section of a grade. He is responsible for attendance, for conduct, for reports, and for contact with the home, as far as possible. He must know every pupil; he is primarily responsible for seeing that each pupil's

needs are met. In the high school the instruction is departmentalized; each teacher teaches pupils of different grades one subject only, or at most a few related subjects. He is primarily responsible for conduct and attendance in his own class. He sends in his report on each pupil to another person who makes out the report. In most schools each teacher is given a certain number of pupils (some or all of them may not be in his classes) for whom he is responsible as far as reports are concerned. No teacher is responsible for knowing any one pupil to the degree that is required of the elementary teacher. This situation makes it necessary to provide some means by which the over-all needs and problems of pupils may be carefully studied, and to organize some agency that will be responsible for helping pupils to solve their problems and assist them to make their decisions.

We are beginning to realize that this concept of guidance as primarily the responsibility of the high school is inadequate. Even from the narrow vocational point of view it is quite untenable. Wise vocational choices depend largely upon attitudes and interests developed, and knowledge secured, through school and out-of-school experiences throughout the period of early life. The more comprehensive view of guidance makes it imperative that guidance be incorporated in the educational program beginning with the kindergarten.

2. *Guidance and Personnel Work in the Elementary School.* Guidance in the elementary school is concerned with helping the child to make choices appropriate to his age and school progress and to adjust himself to the school and his expanding life out of school. In the kindergarten and first grade one of the chief functions of guidance is to assist the child in the transition from the home to the school. Life in the home is relatively free; the relationship is between the individual child and the parent; the child is a member of a group consisting of younger and older persons: parents, brothers, and sisters. In the school, life is somewhat regimented; there are definite tasks to be done at a certain time; the child is a member of a group of the same age and the same general mental and physical development. This transition is for many children a very difficult one to make, and maladjustments are common. Many undesirable attitudes and emotional sets have their origin here. As contrasted with the high school, common interests and common needs are dominant.

The vocational motive, while often present in some degree, is relatively unimportant. Consequently, guidance is directed more definitely toward personality development, social behavior, and problems connected with learning. It is distinctly the whole child that is the object of attention. In the sixth grade attention is given to certain areas of choice and to planning for the next steps in the school; the vocational interests often come to the front.

II. Importance of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work in the Elementary School

Guidance is needed in all parts of the school, but in some respects it is most necessary in the elementary school. The transition from home life to school life frequently causes maladjustments, undesirable attitudes toward school and life, and emotional disturbances that profoundly affect the entire future of the individual. Many of these, if recognized early and if effective guidance is given, are prevented, and the later adjustment of the child to the school and to life in general is made much more easily. When he enters school he comes into contact with the physical conditions of the school where heat and light are regulated, sanitary conditions are maintained, courtesy is emphasized, and care of property is demanded. The contrast between these conditions and that in many homes is so great as often to make the pupil conscious of the unfavorable conditions in his home. This may lay the foundation for friction between parents and children and thus give rise to problems. Serious problems also arise because of health conditions and physical defects that impair the ability of the child to learn. Failure to be promoted or failure to achieve what is expected of him becomes much more important in the school than it was in the home and becomes more important as he progresses from grade to grade. As children grow older and as they develop physically and intellectually, differences in physical and mental equipment become more apparent and more important. These differences, if not cared for, often result in undesirable habits and attitudes both in the gifted and in those of low ability. All these conditions make guidance in the elementary school especially important. The logical place for beginning organized guidance is the point at which the child enters school. For many children it will be

the only opportunity to secure the help they need for proper adjustment to life, because many still leave school at the end of the sixth grade.

III. CURRICULUM AND GUIDANCE

The curricular organization of the elementary school may be a very important factor in the total guidance program. Not only can it help in the gradual development of life goals in general, but it can be of real assistance in the final selection of an occupation. This assistance is given chiefly by laying a background for understanding occupational life and its significance and by developing desirable attitudes toward all types of occupational activities. Definite occupational information of the kind that is useful chiefly in choosing an occupation or getting a job is entirely incidental and unimportant except for those, relatively few in number, who will almost surely drop out of school at the end of the sixth grade. We should not think of this instruction as something that is to be added to our elementary program merely for the purpose of assisting in vocational guidance. The general point of view that will be taken in connection with practically all the instructional work described here is that all work introduced into the school, elementary or secondary, must be worth while in itself for other purposes than merely that of guidance. Our effort should be directed toward utilizing for guidance purposes the material and the activities that are organized for the aims of general education. Thus, in the elementary school, the chief problem is to utilize the various occupational elements now present in the curriculum or which should be introduced and which, when introduced, will make the elementary-school curriculum richer and more efficient for general education purposes.

1. *Material in Modern Textbooks.* The recent emphasis upon the selection of material from life situations for all the subjects in the elementary curriculum indicates what might be done. In arithmetic, actual life problems in solving all sorts of mathematical work are selected in place of the "puzzle problems" of the arithmetic. In geography, emphasis is placed upon occupations, upon social situations, upon trade routes, upon the influence of climate upon life, social and occupational, instead of upon the location of far-away and unimportant places. History stresses

peace instead of war and traces scientific and industrial development as related to problems of the present; civics deals with problems of local government, with occupations, school life, and local problems. Modern readers, basic and supplementary, are full of interesting and helpful stories dealing with phases of occupational and civic life. Some readers attempt to describe various types of occupations in such a way that the pupil may get some idea of what the worker actually does and of the value of the occupation.

2. *Dewey's Experimental School.* A more thoroughgoing attempt to do this was that made by Dewey in the University Elementary School, University of Chicago. Here, occupations were made the articulating centers of school life. This centering of the work upon occupations "gives the point of departure from which the child can trace and follow the progress of mankind in history, getting an insight, also, into the materials used and the mechanical principles involved." Three main lines of work were utilized: (1) shopwork with wood and tools, (2) cooking, and (3) work with textiles, sewing, and weaving. All other work—arithmetic, reading, writing, history, geography—grew out of and was organized around these occupational activities.

3. *Industrial Arts.* The development of industrial arts in the elementary school offers an example of how the work of the elementary school may be used as a background for occupational assistance and guidance. At present, practically all school systems of any size have some form of industrial arts in the elementary school. It will readily be seen that such courses afford a splendid background for vocational choices. Not only should they develop useful habits and skills and teach useful facts, but, what is even more important, they should develop attitudes toward industrial occupations that would be very wholesome and would go far toward counteracting influences that inevitably develop later on.

4. *Course in Occupations or Vocational Civics.* As we near the end of the compulsory period, the need for more specific instruction increases. It is for this reason that many school systems now have a course in civics for the sixth grade which includes a general study of occupations. No attempt is made to deal in a comprehensive manner with occupations or with occupational

problems. It is, however, a vital course in civics that, at the same time, provides a background for vocational study and occupational choice. This course is usually required of all—not merely of those who will leave school at the end of the sixth grade.

5. *Core Curriculum.* The core curriculum in the elementary school may give very definite help in guidance. These curriculums are usually based upon large areas of human activity or functions of human living. Two of these areas are given as samples of types of organization.

BASIC FUNCTIONS OF HUMAN LIVING

SANTA BARBARA, CALIF.

1. Developing and conserving human resources.
2. Developing, conserving, and intelligently utilizing nonhuman resources.
3. Producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services.
4. Communicating.
5. Transporting.
6. Recreating and playing.
7. Expressing and satisfying spiritual and aesthetic needs.
8. Organizing and governing.
9. Providing for education.

AREAS OF HUMAN ACTIVITIES

MISSISSIPPI PROGRAM FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

1. Protecting life and health.
2. Making a home.
3. Conserving and improving material conditions.
4. Cooperating in social and civic action.
5. Getting a living.
6. Securing an education.
7. Expressing religious impulses.
8. Expressing aesthetic impulses.
9. Engaging in recreation.

These curriculums, built as they are upon activities and functions instead of upon subject matter, afford a good basis for the direct attack upon problems of life. They thus give opportunity for securing useful information, for group consideration of life situations, and for individual counseling. These areas are ar-

ranged in scope and sequence so that each topic is considered in each grade of the school, the materials and methods being suited to the particular grades.

IV. METHODS OF GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Many of those who would restrict guidance to the vocational aspects and confine it to the secondary school affirm that in the elementary school it is not guidance but teaching. This is really a tribute to the elementary teacher, for here, especially in the primary grades, the method used is guidance rather than formal instruction. Observation in good kindergartens and primary grades amply confirms this statement. Although there are specialists who contribute greatly to the efficiency of guidance in the elementary school, it is the teacher upon whom rests the major responsibility. The elementary schools have avoided, for the most part, the mistake that has weakened many of the guidance programs in the secondary school, the tendency to establish guidance as a specialized and separate department with little relationship to the curriculum and to the other activities of the school. The kindergarten and first grade very quickly discover the children who are overdependent, shy, easily frightened, over-aggressive, quarrelsome, specially gifted, or of low ability. Other characteristics are revealed by the school nurse or the visiting teacher or by special tests. This diagnosis is the first step in guidance. By sympathetic counsel, by organization of activities, by contact with the home the teacher gradually helps the shy and overdependent child to overcome his handicaps. He begins to find himself in situations where he is the one who is depended upon to help other children, to lead in certain activities. The teacher guides the children through daily practice into types of behavior that mean progress and growth. A good example of this is given by McGregor.[1]

Looking closely at each individual, as the *teacher* does, she discovers that the young child is gradually adapting himself to group life and building habits of study and attitudes of behavior that have to be channeled into successful ways of working. She finds, for example, that certain children are impeded in learning to read by

[1] MCGREGOR, A. LAURA, "Progress in the First Year of Schooling. The Continuity of Guidance," pp. 28–29, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1939.

the fact that there are other children around them. It is quite true that certain individuals, who would learn to read readily by themselves, find the concentrated process, which is reading, broken up when others are near by. The teacher who is really a guide does not spend too much time forcing this child to read in the group situation. She tries to secure for him reading instruction of a remedial nature; she tries to help his mother to assist him to learn to read; she herself helps him to overcome the inhibiting or distracting effect of the group situation. She may do this by establishing some group activities other than reading—perhaps construction activities—in which he must work with others around him and not disappoint by failure those whose common job hinges upon his. After many experiences with others the sense of group familiarity removes the distractions which affect him when he reads.

In such ways as these the child in the elementary school is helped to adjust himself to group life, to develop increasing independence, and to know where to go for the help he needs. The school curriculum and methods of teaching in the various subjects are very important factors in this growth. The number of choices is gradually increased and their area widened; pupils are given increasing responsibility in various aspects of school life. Special abilities are utilized, and tasks suited to those of low ability may be provided. The teacher in the core curriculum is often called "teacher-counselor" and should have continuous contact with the same group of pupils over a series of years. He would serve as a guide and instructor, and as a coordinator of all special agencies, special teachers, nurse, psychologist, visiting teacher, etc., that have any contribution to make in assisting the pupils under his care. Thus the major responsibility for the guidance of pupils would rest upon this trained teacher-counselor.

In diagnosis and prognosis, tests such as those described in Chaps. VIII and IX are very helpful, especially in the upper grades of the elementary school. Cumulative records, including those of the anecdotal type, are indispensable. Special workers, such as the psychologist, the nurse, and the visiting teacher, contribute very important services. The psychologist gives tests and diagnoses certain types of ability and characteristics. The nurse contributes not only to a knowledge of problems of health but often is better able than any other person to get into intimate

contact with the home and find causes of the maladjustment of the pupil that would otherwise not be revealed. The visiting teacher, in her role of assistant to the teacher, is especially important. She contributes not only to an understanding of home conditions and the general social situation but to a knowledge of the child. She also aids directly in the adjustment of the child and in the improvement of home conditions.

The responsibilities of the specialized guidance staff in the elementary school of Glencoe, Ill., are summed up as follows: [2]

1. To plan and supervise the gathering of such facts as are essential to the understanding and guidance of each individual child in the school system—facts about his home and family background, developmental history, physical health, capacities, needs, interests, and achievements.

2. To make such facts available to teachers and then to help teachers use the facts in solving their own problems in the guidance of children, rather than to relieve teachers of these problems.

3. To assume direct responsibilities in the guidance of a child only when the principal and teachers have been unable to solve the child's problems.

4. To carry on a continuous program of teacher-parent education in the fields of mental hygiene and guidance or adjustment technics.

5. To analyze systematically the facts gathered and the results obtained in the adjustment of pupils, so that the mutual adjustment of school to pupil and of pupil to school may be a continuously evolving process.

It is not only for the problem child that guidance in the elementary school is needed. The real teacher regards every child who has a problem as a problem child and attempts to give him the help he needs.

In some elementary schools there is very little organization for guidance and personnel work; in others definite provision is made for this service. In Los Angeles, there is in each elementary school a supervising counselor; there are district supervisors of counseling under the technical supervision of the Supervisor of Guidance and Counseling, Elementary Division, and the Head Supervisor of the Evaluation Section. The supervising counselor

---

[2] KAWIN, ETHEL, The Guidance Program in a Suburban Community of the Middlewest, p. 307, Elementary School Principals' Yearbook, 1940.

of the school works with the principal and a guidance committee appointed by the principal.

At present very little is done in the elementary school to guide pupils into or toward the junior high school or seventh grade. Much is done after they get in, but little guidance is attempted in the sixth grade. This is due quite largely to the general belief that pupils will usually go beyond the sixth grade. The normal age for the seventh grade is from twelve to thirteen, and the compulsory-attendance laws do not allow pupils to drop out before they are fourteen or sixteen years old and then only if they are employed. The statistics of elimination given on pages 263 and 264, however, show that many do drop out before they reach the seventh grade. This shows a real need for guidance not later than the sixth grade. It may not be true that all of those who drop out should go on to the junior high school, but care should be taken to give them the information and counsel that are needed to enable them to decide wisely whether they should continue in school or not. Valuable information is often given in folders describing the junior high school, printed by the boards of education. Frequently, time is devoted in sixth-grade classes to a definite study of the offerings of the junior high school and of the advantages that it provides. In some cases the overage pupils—those who will reach the age of fourteen or sixteen at the end of the sixth grade—are organized as a group and special care is taken to give them information and counsel about the opportunities offered by the junior high school. In many schools, this group is taken on a visit to a junior high school to show them what it is like. Some schools print folders describing the work of the junior high schools. These are discussed with the sixth-grade pupils. Individual counsel is very important. The counselor or home-room sponsor, or teacher, knowing the ability of the pupil and his home conditions as well as something about his interests, can so organize the various factors that the pupil will receive the help he individually needs in making his choice.

Guidance in the elementary school, by whatever name it may be called, is the foundation of all later attempts to help individuals; it gives the pattern for later guidance. It is impossible to overestimate the value of the services of the school social worker in the elementary school. Her entire work is guidance; her center of interest and effort is the child as an individual, and

his problems—whatever these may be and wherever they may lead. This work is described in more detail in Chap. X.

REFERENCES

1. AVERILL, LAWRENCE A.: "The Psychology of the Elementary School Child," Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1949. The child from six to twelve. The mental-hygiene point of view is emphasized.

2. BERGER, D.: Guidance in the Elementary School, *Teachers College Record*, 41:44–50, October, 1947. Many practical suggestions.

3. CALIFORNIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATION: "Guidance in the Elementary School," Tenth Yearbook, Oakland, Calif., 1938. A very useful and practical monograph giving many suggestions of ways in which the elementary school and its personnel can assist the pupil in his problems and adjustments.

4. DANGLER, EDWARD: Young Children Need Guidance Too, *Understanding the Child*, 18:52–53, April, 1949. Stresses the need for guidance in the early years.

5. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," rev. ed., Chap. XVIII, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949. Discusses guidance in the elementary school.

6. FOREST, ILSE: "Early Years in School: A Textbook for Students of Early Childhood Education," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. An excellent treatment of early childhood education.

7. JENKINS, GLADYS GARDNER, HELEN SHACTER, and WILLIAM W. BAUER: "These Are Your Children," Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, 1949. A book written for parents, especially.

8. JESSILD, A. T., and R. J. TASCH: "Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1949. Describes the developing interests of children.

9. LONG BEACH, CALIF.: "Handbook for Counselors," Long Beach, Calif., Public Schools, 1948. Includes suggestions for elementary schools.

10. LOS ANGELES, CALIF.: "Guidance in Elementary Schools," Office of Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif., 1948. The purpose and organization of guidance in the elementary schools is described.

11. McKOWN, HARRY C.: "Activities in the Elementary School," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. Brings together many types of pupil activities from many schools.

12. MARTENS, ELISE H.: Clinical Organization for Child Guidance within the Schools, *U.S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1939, No. 15, Washington, D.C., 1939. Discusses the place of clinical service in schools and describes various plans in operation.

13. REDL, FRITZ: "Understanding Children's Behavior," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1949. Explains growth and adjustment problems of children.

14. STRANG, RUTH: "Pupil Personnel and Guidance," pp. 174–178, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. Some very valuable suggestions for guidance and personnel work in the elementary school.

15. WEEKS, ZORAIDA E., Chairman: "The Continuity of Guidance," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1939. An excellent discussion of the philosophy of guidance and of the methods appropriate to each stage of the school life of the child. Chapter 3, Progress in the First Year of Schooling, is especially helpful.

METHODS OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

I. CONTINUITY OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

To be really effective, guidance should be a continuous proc-
ess. Not only should help be provided to all who need it when
they need it, but there should be a continuity about it so that at
each step we are conscious of the main features of what took
place before and of the fact that it will go on, that it is never
completely finished. If this is true, it is difficult to mark off pre-
cisely the line that discriminates the guidance activities that
should be performed in one division of the school from those in
another. This is especially true when we consider guidance in
the junior high school and in the senior high school. Although
the junior high school is in operation in many cities, there are
still many schools, probably the majority, where the old 8–4 plan
is still found. Some of these have modified seventh and eighth
·grades, but many are still operating as elementary grades. Even
in schools that operate on the 6–3–3 plan, or some modification
of it, pupil interest and needs begin to diverge rather sharply,
and different emphases in the guidance program are necessary.
Some overage pupils plan to leave school in the eighth or ninth
grade; other pupils are looking forward to college and advanced
professional preparation; the majority will enter the senior high
school or even complete it. Because of these factors, it is un-
desirable to regard guidance in the junior high school as some-
thing different from that in the senior high school. On the other
hand, it is equally undesirable to regard the different aspects of
guidance as separate. This would lead to a discussion of voca-
tional guidance as it is developed throughout the junior and
senior high schools without regard to other aspects of guidance
that are inseparably related to it. Since we are stressing the
need for the consideration of the pupil as a whole and the inter-

relationships of the so-called "phases" of guidance in the individual and in the school and since the junior high school is organized as a division that is more or less separate from the senior high school, it seems best to discuss guidance as related to divisions of the school. However, we shall try not to repeat unduly the discussion of specific methods of one or another phase of guidance that is found in each school, placing such discussion in the division of school where the chief emphasis is usually given to that phase.

II. FUNCTIONS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The junior high school was established because of the conviction that six years was sufficient for the attainment of the legitimate aims of the elementary school and that the needs of boys and girls between the ages of eleven and fifteen were not adequately met by the 8-4 organization of the school. These youths are either in the early adolescent stage or very close to its beginning. Some of the most evident characteristics of this period are described by Linton [1] as follows:

> The early adolescent is best characterized by change. Teachers are conscious of the great physical change children make during the years they are in the junior high school. Boys jump from striplings to young men; girls blossom from childhood to young womanhood. Accompanying this great physical growth must be organic change. Vitality is often reduced. Not all adolescent changes are physical. Maturation of sex causes changed thinking and not infrequently emotional disturbances. With the approach of manhood and womanhood, boys and girls view the world in a changed light. Interests become broader; the adult is emulated. Very naturally the boy or girl of normal development begins to think of his place in the world.
>
> During this period of growth and change, the school has great guidance functions to perform. Intellectual growth must be safeguarded. Physical development must be looked after. The emotional life must be watched over to see that it is not warped. The social outlook of early adolescents has taken on new color and must be satisfied. Interests and potentialities which have importance in determining future vocational pursuits must be discovered and encouraged.

[1] LINTON, HARRY J., "Exploration and Transition, the Continuity of Guidance," pp. 31, 32, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1939.

The junior high school is thus peculiarly a period of transition, exploration, and experimentation; when new interests appear and new vistas of life spread out before the youth. We no longer accept the point of view that these changes are usually sudden and cataclysmic; we know that they are relatively gradual and that any change that is observed has had its beginning long before it is apparent even to the individual himself. Nevertheless, these changes are of great importance, and the consciousness of the individual that the change is occurring or has occurred is especially significant. Since the period of maturing does not begin at the same time in all youth, there are many pupils in the sixth grade who have already begun maturing and some even in the tenth grade who are still immature. But the fact that most of the pupils in grades 7 to 9 are beginning pubescence, or pass through the period while in these grades, results in a group consciousness that affects even those who are immature.

The junior high school shares with the elementary school and the senior high school responsibilities connected with the attainment of general educational objectives, and, for certain groups, it shares with the senior high school the responsibility for vocational education and training. The unique function of any school should be based upon the needs peculiar to the group of pupils whom it attempts to serve. The needs for preparation for the next step, for exploration and experimentation, are dominant and determine the function of the junior high school. It should be said that there are all too many institutions called junior high schools that are not conscious of this function and still others that are so circumscribed by the requirements of the senior high school on the one hand and by the carry-over of elementary-school objectives and methods on the other that they are unable to function as they should.

In carrying out these functions guidance becomes of dominant importance. It is, in fact, so important that some junior high schools are giving undue emphasis to this function to the neglect of others that are also important.

III. Problems of the Junior-high-school Pupil

The problems facing the junior-high-school pupil are not basically different from those in any other part of the school system, but some of them are of special significance. In general these problems are the following:

1. *Adjustment to the New School.* Although the change from the elementary school to the junior high school is not so abrupt as that between the eighth and the ninth grade of the old organization, there is enough difference to necessitate a definite plan of adjustment. Departmental organization, usually provided for in the junior high school, means that the pupil must adjust himself to a variety of teachers; instead of remaining in the same room for all his classes, he moves from room to room. He is plunged into a different type of school life and school discipline. There are various clubs and student activities; there is usually some form of student government; the school library is usually a new experience. He will be expected to take more responsibility both for his own activities and for elements in the general life of the school. He must learn the physical aspects of the school and its requirements.

2. *Problems Connected with Learning.* Although the learning problems are not essentially new, many become of increasing importance. Reading difficulties, differences in rate of learning, likes and dislikes, study habits, differences in aptitude for school subjects, all present problems that are difficult for the pupil to solve without help.

3. *Desirable Length of School Attendance.* Some children will begin to reach the place where further schooling of the kind available may not be desirable; each year brings for them diminishing returns. How long to remain in school becomes for these an important problem.

4. *Emotional Problems.* Emotional disturbances occur in all stages of development and in all parts of the school system. Some have their origin or at least become especially insistent in the junior high school. Physiological development, bringing with it increased size and strength, sex impulses, responsibilities resulting from approaching maturity, all are very important causes of emotional changes and emotional instability. Such emotional conditions are the causes of much maladjustment and unhappiness.

5. *Physical Needs.* The physical needs peculiar to junior-high-school pupils center around the period of rapid growth and physiological maturation. Accompanying these we frequently find lowered vitality, fatigue, apparent laziness and lethargy, often mistaken for laziness, impaired coordination, and awkwardness due to unequal growth of different parts of the body,

physiological changes caused by maturing of the sex organs. Serious maladjustments often result from these conditions.

6. *Social Needs.* The special social needs of the young adolescent arise partly from the physical and emotional needs already described and partly from expanding vision resulting from more extended experience, wider contacts, and approaching maturity. Timidity, self-consciousness, overaggressiveness, dislikes, "crushes," and "wanderlust" are among the characteristics often apparent.

7. *Further Education and Occupational Choice.* The junior high school is so organized that in the first two years there is little or no choice of subjects; all are required to take the same work. Sometimes a limited choice is given in the upper half of the eighth grade, but usually selection of courses is deferred until the ninth grade. Many are nearly old enough to be exempt from school attendance and consequently will not remain in school more than one or two years. Out of this situation many important problems arise. Among these are tentative choice of occupation, choice of kind of school or course, preparation for the next step in school, getting a job. These problems are so important and so difficult that special help is needed; the school must provide it.

IV. METHODS OF GUIDANCE IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The methods of guidance used in the junior high school are not essentially different from those in the senior high school, the differences being mainly in points of emphasis. The differences in the organization and function of the two divisions of the school also modify to some extent the methods used. In the following discussion, attention will be centered mainly upon the general methods used, leaving until the next chapter the discussion of choice of school and choice of occupation.

1. *Importance of the Teacher and the Home-room Sponsor.* In the junior high school there is even greater need for full-time counselors than in the senior high school; nothing can take the place of individualized guidance or counseling. The semidepartmentalized organization of the school, the greater frequency of home-room organization, the larger number of general subjects, and the spirit of the school itself all operate to throw a larger responsibility for guidance upon the classroom teacher and the

home-room sponsor. The classroom teacher meets each pupil more frequently; he knows more about the pupil; and by means of general science, general mathematics, and general language, he is able to help the pupil explore fields of knowledge and experience, widen his interests, and lay the basis for more intelligent choices. In home-room activities and in clubs of various kinds, there is opportunity for cooperation and for the development of habits and ideals of social relationships and mutual consideration and for the elimination of racial prejudices. The more intimate relationship over a longer period enables the teacher to help the pupil eliminate undesirable attitudes and assist in his adjustment both in and out of school.

2. *Group Guidance Activities.* Many junior high schools have well-organized group guidance courses running throughout the three grades and especially planned to help the pupil. Sometimes these are organized as home-room activities and sometimes as special courses in social studies, science, English, or without attachment to any subject field. In some schools the core curriculum is so organized as to provide for this type of program.

Nearly all these group guidance courses cover the following general topics, although not always in the same order:

1. Orientation to the school.
2. Improvement of study habits.
3. Improvement of personal adjustments.
4. Development of social relationships and responsibilities.
5. Self-appraisal.
6. Formulation of life goals.
7. Development of plans for education and other activities to attain these goals.
8. Preparation for the next school.
9. Tentative selection of an occupation.

In order that the methods used may be seen more clearly, the outlines of three very interesting courses are given.

HOME-ROOM ACTIVITIES IN LA CROSSE, WISCONSIN [2]

GENERAL ACTIVITIES

The general activities which should be carried on in every home-room at each grade level are:

[2] From *The Homeroom Teacher Helps Jane and John, Bulletin No. 8, Guidance Procedures,* La Crosse Public Schools, September, 1949.

1. *Group Guidance.* Problems taken up in group guidance are those related to educational plans, adjustment to school and home, social situations, occupational interests, personality problems and high school activities or being successful in high school.

2. *Individual Counseling.* This is the most intimate and vital part of the entire guidance program; it is personal and dynamic.

<center>SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES BY GRADES</center>

A. Seventh Grade
  1. *Group Guidance*
    a. Study of Junior High School Handbook
    b. Development of school loyalty
    c. Orientation program—Note 7th grade language arts teaching guide
  2. *Individual Counseling*
    a. Teacher studies pupil's permanent record card and information in cumulative folder
    b. Individual problems of pupils—health, social, mental, etc.
    c. School progress—checking of report cards
    d. Follow-up recommendations on health, social, school progress, etc.

B. Eighth Grade
  1. *Group Guidance*
    a. Discussion of meaning and purpose of plan sheet
      (1) Emphasis on honesty and sincerity in answering
      (2) Importance of correct spelling, legible handwriting, and good English
    b. Give plan sheet to clerk for the recording of educational and vocational plans on pupil's permanent record card
    c. Place plan sheet in pupil's folder
    d. Note suggestions under General Activities
  2. *Individual Counseling*
    a. Go over pupil's plan sheet with pupil when pupil is making out his 9th grade program card
    b. Check over the material in pupil's folder before the conference with pupil (Note pupil's theme, "What You Ought to Know about Me")
    c. Give special attention to selection of mathematics course by considering achievement in arithmetic, *results* of algebra aptitude test, the recommendations of 8th grade teacher of mathematics, the general intelligence rating, and pupil's interest
    d. If there is any question of pupil's choice in mathematics,

discuss the matter with the pupil's teacher of mathematics and with his parents. Here is an excellent opportunity for a parent conference

    e. Note pupil's interest in music and art for electives. Recommend the pupils discuss the matter with art and music teachers

    f. Note pupil's needs and interests in extracurricular activities

C. Ninth Grade

  1. *Group Guidance*

    a. Study of Junior High School Handbook

    b. Study of Senior High School Handbook

      (1) Courses of study, meaning of A and B courses, value of subjects, meaning of electives, co-curricular activities

    c. Explanation and discussion of 9th grade pupil's plan sheet

      (1) Discussion of meaning and purpose of plan sheet

      (2) Note pupil appraisal to be made by pupil

      (3) Emphasis on honesty and sincerity in answering questions

      (4) Importance of correct spelling, legible handwriting, good English

      (5) Place plan sheet in folder

    d. Discussion of Orientation Program

      (1) Meaning and purpose of program

      (2) What to look for

      (3) Questions to ask

    e. Discussion of orientation program after attendance

    f. Use a film like, "Finding Your Life Work," if it is not used in English class

      (1) Very good film—one which 9th grade pupils will like

      (2) Obtain from Wisconsin Bureau of Visual Instruction

    g. Invite senior-high-school counselor to discuss senior-high-school program with the group

  2. *Individual Counseling*

    a. Go over pupil's plan sheet with each pupil when pupil is making his 10th grade program card

      (1) Check over material in pupil's folder before conference

      (2) Be sure that pupil and parent understand the course selected

      (3) In all cases where there is any question as to choice of course of study, obtain the parent's signature on the blank. Here is an excellent opportunity for parent conference

  b. Suggest pupils talk over industrial arts courses with in-
   dustrial arts teachers; home economics courses with home
   economics teachers; commercial courses with teachers of
   business training; and languages with English teachers
  c. Discuss with pupil his record in attitude, behavior, health
   habits, and subject matter skills with suggestions for im-
   provement

D. Tenth Grade
 1. *Group Guidance*
  a. Study of Senior High School Handbook
  b. Explanation and purpose of student's plan sheet (Home-
   room teacher with help of counselor)
   (1) Discussion of meaning and purpose of plan sheet
   (2) Emphasis on honesty and sincerity in answering ques-
    tions
   (3) Encourage pupils to discuss plans with parents
   (4) Place plan sheet in folder
  c. Explanation of electives to be offered (Home-room teacher
   or counselor)
  d. Films—Bureau of Visual Instruction, University of Wiscon-
   sin (See counselor)
 2. *Individual Counseling*—Assistance of school counselor
  a. Check over material in pupil's folder before conference
  b. Check Student's Plan Sheet—eleventh and twelfth grade
   program and educational and vocational plans
  c. Check plans with pupil's previous achievements recorded
   on pupil's permanent record card
  d. Check with home-room teachers so all records and plans
   of members of the home room are clear and accurate
  e. In all cases where there is doubt or question on plans,
   arrange a parent conference

E. Eleventh Grade
 1. *Counseling*
  a. Referrals for occupational information and college entrance
  b. Personal *problems*

F. Twelfth Grade
 1. *Group Counseling*
  a. Talks by representatives of industry, colleges, and universi-
   ties
  b. Study and explanation of 12A Pre-counseling Information
  c. Study and explanation of Wisconsin Employment Service
   application card

    d. Study and explanation of college and university application blanks

    e. Films—Bureau of Visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin

       (1) Automotive Service

       (2) Draftsman

       (3) Electrician

       (4) Nursing

       (5) Machinist and Toolmaker

       (6) Journalism

       (7) I Want to Be a Secretary

       (8) I Want a Job

       (9) Others

    f. Note Language Arts Teaching Guide (12th Grade)

  2. *Individual Counseling*—Assistance of Counselor

Discuss the replies made on all the above blanks and forms with pupils

    a. Study materials in cumulative folder before conferences

    b. Note guidance helps given by English teacher (Language Arts Teaching Guide—12th Grade)

These outlines are merely suggestions to home-room teachers and sponsors but are very helpful in indicating types of problems and in major points of emphasis. Resource units are also provided that give more definite help.

PROGRAM OF PUPIL ORIENTATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, ERIE, PA. PART I, GRADES SEVEN, EIGHT, AND NINE—"INFORMATION, PLEASE!"[3]

    Grade 7. Guidance Emphasis This Year: Educational

First Semester	Second Semester
	Broad Objective: Opportunities of Junior High School
Broad Objective: Orientation	
Six Weeks Periods Objectives:	Six Weeks Periods Objectives:
1. Our school organization.	1. Objectives of Junior High.
2. Traditions and regulations.	2. How our school meets objectives.
3. Student responsibilities to the school.	3. Junior High objectives applied to the individual.

<hr/>

[3] "Information, Please!" A Program of Orientation for Secondary Schools: Part I, Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine, School District of the City of Erie, Pa., 1939. This program is still being used (1950).

Detailed Program by Weeks

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. Tour of building and introduction of administration.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Parliamentary law.
4. Organization and purpose of home room.
5. Student participation in school government.
6. Auditorium and cafeteria procedure.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. Review of first period achievement.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. History of school: school honors, songs, colors, awards, etc.
4. Attendance and school regulations.
5. Scholarship—its rewards:
   a. Report cards.
   b. Scholarships.
6. Organization of school: home room, clubs, school day and week.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

1. Home-room duties of pupil, regulations, attendance, guidance.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Respect for property.
4. Let's do more than yell—school spirit.
5. Protecting your health and health of others.
6. Responsibility toward classwork, teacher, principal, superintendent, monitors, class officers, club officers, assembly leaders.

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. School and life (a survey).
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Health and leisure time.
4. Citizenship and ethical character.
5. Worthy home membership.
6. Command of fundamental processes and vocational preparation.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. Review of first period achievement.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. How school provides for citizenship.
4. Leisure-time training for health.
5. Responsibility for home membership.
6. Skill in fundamental processes. Preparation for a vocation.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

1. I make a plan to improve my health.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. I make a plan to become a good citizen.
4. I make a plan to do my share at home.
5. I make a definite plan to improve my schoolwork.
6. I make a plan to improve myself in my leisure.

Grade 8. Guidance Emphasis This Year:
Citizenship Moral and Ethical

First Semester	Second Semester
Broad Objective: School Citizenship	*Broad Objective: Community Citizenship*

Six Weeks Periods Objectives:

1. School citizenship.
2. School, home, and student.
3. Unique relationship between my school and community.

Six Weeks Periods Objectives:

1. Community citizenship.
2. Moral and ethical.
3. Study habits (planning grade 9 programs).

Detailed Program by Weeks

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. Personal qualifications of the good citizen.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Conduct in halls, cafeteria, auditorium, classrooms.
4. Regard for school property.
5. Advantages of an orderly and well-equipped school.
6. Rating myself as a school citizen.

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. Manners and courtesy in public places.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Care of neighbor's property.
4. Obedience to laws.
5. How to promote safety on highways.
6. What has Erie done to promote a good society?

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. School citizenship carried to the home.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Home citizenship.
4. Conduct in the home.
5. Courteous, friendly attitude toward other pupils.
6. Parent-Teacher and social workers.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. Promoting habits of honesty, truthfulness, and self-control.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Respect for others, their beliefs, abilities, dress, etc.
4. Attitude toward other members of our family.
5. We and our companions.
6. Worthy ideals.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

1. Manners and courtesy of citizens of the community.
2. Principal's bulletin.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

1. Setting the stage: making the body and mind ready for study.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

3. Pupil's privileges and responsibilities in coming from and going to school.
4. How can I aid in law enforcement in my community?
5. Relationship of the school to my home.
6. "A house divided against itself cannot stand." How does this apply in home, classroom, school, and community?

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Laying out my study job.
4. Skills and devices for successful study.
5. Curricula—what they should do for me.
6. Developing self-reliance as a learner.

Grade 9. Emphasis This year: Personal, Vocational Guidance

First Semester	Second Semester
Broad Objective: Personal Guidance	*Broad Objective: Vocational Guidance*

Six Weeks Periods Objectives:

1. Self-analysis.
2. Personality.
3. Recreation.

Six Weeks Periods Objectives:

1. Study of occupations.
2. Occupational interests.
3. Planning for vocational success.

Detailed Program by Weeks

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. Specific interest questionnaire.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Personality questionnaire.
4. What ability have I?
5. Remedial discussion of shortcomings.
6. Courtesy at school.

First Six Weeks. Unit I:

1. Manufacturing; trades.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Transportation and communication.
4. Merchandising.
5. Clerical occupations.
6. Professions.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. Review of the qualities of personality.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. The advantages to you of a desirable personality.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

1. A survey of individual occupational interests. Why I am interested in my choice.
2. Principal's bulletin.
3. Analysis of my abilities.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

    4. Make a study of people who have made successful adjustments to personality difficulties.

    5. Continue lesson four.

    6. Make a chart of my adjustment program.

Second Six Weeks. Unit II:

    4. *a.* History of occupations.
       b. How can school help in my occupational choice?

    5. Survey of local opportunities.

    6. Compensations:
       a. Financial.
       b. Social.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

    1. Importance of leisure:
       a. How I spend my leisure time.
       b. Value received from recreation.

    2. Principal's bulletin.

    3. My vacation—opportunity for growth.

    4. Types of recreation and values of each. Planned recreation.

    5. School activities and clubs.

    6. Characteristics of a worthwhile leisure activity. Rating chart for my leisure-time activity.

Third Six Weeks. Unit III:

    1. Planning your lifework.

    2. Principal's bulletin.

    3. Why we work. Dignity of all work.

    4. Need for physical and mental fitness.

    5. Planning one's education for a chosen vocation.

    6. Making the most of educational opportunities.

This program is very comprehensive and covers the most important problems confronting the junior-high-school student. With competent home-room sponsors it should be very effective in the guidance program.

A very comprehensive plan for a study of the opportunities in the junior high school is that prepared by the Committee on Guidance of the Boston Public Schools.[4] The material in these two pamphlets is so complete and so suggestive that the different units, together with the aims of each, are given here. This out-

---

[4] BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Guidance—Educational and Vocational, A Tentative Plan for Group Counseling in Intermediate Schools, *Board of Superintendents' Circular No. 2, 1928–1929;* and *Board of Superintendents' Circular No. 17, 1928–1929, First Supplement to Board of Superintendents' Circular No. 2, Printing Department, Boston, 1929.*

line has been found so satisfactory that, with a few minor changes, it is still in use (1950). It is, however, now being revised.

<div align="center">

BOSTON PLAN FOR GROUP COUNSELING
IN INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS

Grade VII

</div>

The seventh-grade course in guidance is intended to acquaint children with those opportunities which the intermediate school offers them for getting an education and preparing for a place in the world's work.

<div align="center">

Unit I [5]

An Intensive Study of the Pupils' Intermediate School

</div>

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the school in which they find themselves.
2. To help pupils understand the purpose of the intermediate school in a scheme of education.

<div align="center">

Unit II

What the School Gives to Pupils

</div>

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the purpose of their education.
2. To help pupils understand their opportunities.

<div align="center">

Unit III

An Intensive Study of the Relation of Attendance to School Success

</div>

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the advantages of regular attendance at school.
2. To help pupils understand that habits of regularity are fundamental to success in life.

[5] A unit comprises several lessons—the number to be determined by class conditions. The approximate number will usually be found upon the lesson sheets for each unit. Each unit has a series of suggested topics, not given here.

Unit IV

Educational Information. A Study of the Courses of the Intermediate School

Aims:

1. To help the pupil understand the purpose of the course that he is taking and the possibilities it holds for him.
2. To help the pupil understand that these courses are steps in his preparation for a part in the world's work.
3. To help pupils make future choices of course more intelligently.

Unit V

Occupational Information (Optional)

NOTE.—In districts where there is a tendency to early school leaving or where economic conditions force children into employment soon after the limit of compulsory schooling has been reached, it will be advisable to insert this unit.

Aims:

1. To acquaint children with those types of industry open to untrained workers.
2. To show them how to secure promotion within these industries.
3. To show them how, with further evening study, these positions may lead to advancement in other lines of employment.

Unit VI

A Study of the Value of an Education

Aims:

To help pupils toward an appreciation of the need for a longer and more specialized education than that of a generation ago.

Unit VII

A Study of the Ways of Earning Money to Help Secure an Education

Aims:

1. To help pupils appreciate the expense to their parents of a complete education.
2. To turn pupils' attention to ways of helping to earn something toward their expenses.
3. To induce pupils to save to pay for any further education beyond public school which they might wish to secure.

Grade VIII

The eighth-grade course in guidance is intended to keep before pupils the fact that at the end of this year an important decision must be made. It purposes to give them some basis for this choice. Two factors affect this: adequate educational and vocational information and the recognition of interest and ability.

Unit I

Another View of the Pupils' Intermediate School

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the school in which they find themselves.
2. To help pupils understand the part the work of the eighth grade plays in making this decision.

Unit II

An Intensive Study of the Relation of Attendance to School Success

Note.—Treated more briefly than in Grade VII and from the point of view of good business rather than good discipline.

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the advantages of regular attendance at school.
2. To help pupils understand that habits of regularity are fundamental to success in life.

Unit III   •

Educational Information. The Study of the Boston School System

Aims:

1. To help pupils get a picture of the extent of the Boston School System.
2. To help pupils get an idea of the opportunities that the city offers them in day school.
3. To help pupils understand what opportunities the city offers their parents and older brothers and sisters in evening school.
4. To help pupils understand why such widely varied types of schools are needed today in our system.
5. To help pupils understand why in so complex a system guidance is necessary.

Unit IV

Occupational Information. A Study of the Occupational Field

Aims:

1. To teach children to look forward to taking their place in the world's work.
2. To teach children to understand and appreciate the necessity and dignity of work.
3. To give children a broad view of the occupational field.
4. To teach children to think about possible vocations which interest them.

Unit V

Opportunities in the Ninth Grade

Aims:

1. To help children make proper selection of courses for the ninth year.
2. To ensure that all children who are considering college entrance are taking the proper units.

Unit VI

Educational Information. The Value of an Education

Aims:

As in Grade VII.

The Ways of Helping to Secure an Education

Aims:

As in Grade VII.

Grade IX

Unit I

A Study of the Pupils' Intermediate School

NOTE.—Treated very briefly and from the point of view of using some of the activities for exploratory value.

Aims:

1. To help pupils understand the intermediate schools in which they find themselves.
2. To help them to understand the relation between the year's work and the choice of vocation.

Unit II

The Relation of Schoolwork to Life

Aims:

1. To help the child to see more definitely the relation of what he does at present to what he will do in the future.
2. To help the child to form consciously habits of regularity, punctuality, and industry, as definite parts of his life equipment.

Unit III

Occupational Information. A Survey of the Field of Occupations in Boston

See Occupation Unit in Grade VIII for Aims.

Unit IV

Educational Information

Part I. The Growth of Education

Aims:

1. To help the child understand that the growth of educational opportunities, not in Boston alone, but everywhere, is a part of our national life.
2. To help the pupil understand that the educational system has developed because of the demand made by changing conditions of life within the community.

Part II. The Detailed Study of the Boston High and Trade Schools

Aims:

1. To give the student a clear picture of the educational opportunities offered in Boston secondary schools.

Unit V

The Relation of Schoolwork to Life

Aims:

1. To enable the pupil to see in what definite way his schoolwork is a part of his preparation for life.
2. To secure in him the right disposition toward a continuance of his education.

3. To face him with the necessity of thinking seriously about his life career.

It will be seen that, as in the two other courses, the problems connected with school opportunities and adjustments are combined with problems connected with occupational choice and planning.

In these discussions, constant use is made of pamphlets published by the board of education describing the junior and senior high schools. A very helpful feature of these pamphlets is the suggestive lesson outlines. A few of these are given in the Tentative Outline, but they are more definitely outlined in the Supplement. Each one is outlined in accordance with the better methods of curriculum construction, into (1) objectives, (2) suggested procedures, and (3) outcomes. (See footnote on page 336.) This provides for investigation by students and for class discussion and study. A commendable feature is the use of actual cases as a basis for class discussion. The outline also provides for continuity of work throughout the junior high school.

Boards of education in many cities print attractive pamphlets describing the courses, the curriculums, and the general opportunities offered by the senior high school, together with the rules and requirements. These are distributed to ninth-grade pupils in the junior high school and are discussed in home rooms and assemblies. They also are the basis for many personal interviews with counselors.

Group-guidance activities are very important parts of the guidance program. They do not take the place of individual counseling, but they often arouse pupils to a consciousness of the need for individual help and also reveal to the teacher needs not otherwise recognized. They also are a very effective means of orienting the new pupil to the school.

3. *Self-appraisal Program for Guidance.* Philadelphia [6] has been experimenting with a very interesting program of self-appraisal for junior-high-school pupils. The following outline will indicate the purpose and scope of the program:

[6] PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL DISTRICT, "The Self Appraisal Program, Grades 7–9, Handbook for Teachers," Board of Public Education, Philadelphia, 1956.

I. Introducing the Program

1. Self-appraisal Is Cooperative
2. Coordinating the Program
    a. Ordering Materials
    b. Cumulative Records
3. Orienting Classes and Individuals
4. Responsibility for Self-study

II. Measuring Instruments and Their Use

1. Mental Abilities and School Skills
2. Interests
3. Social Adjustment
4. Kits for Schools and Teachers
5. Test Administration, a Basic Plan
6. Suggested Weekly Schedule for Discovery of Aptitudes

III. Relating Test Results to Occupational Information

1. Use of Information about Pupils
2. Sources of Information—Teacher Reference
    a. Literature
    b. Pamphlets and Periodicals
    c. Mailing Lists for School Library
3. Sources of Information—Pupil Reference
    a. Literature
    b. Posters
    c. Films and Slides
    d. Radio and Television
    e. Newspapers and Magazines
4. Information about Curriculums
5. Service of School Counselor
6. Organizing a Program of Activities that Gives Occupational Information

IV. Cooperating with Parents

1. Informing Parents Concerning the Program
2. Conferences with Pupils and Parents
3. Suggestions for Conducting Conferences
    a. Planning for the Conferences
    b. The Conference
    c. Terminating the Conference
    d. Recording the Results of the Conference
    e. Supplementing the Conference

V. EVALUATIONS

1. Incidental Evaluations
2. Planned Evaluations
   a. Career Prophecies
   b. Pupil Reactions to the Program

VI. TIMELY REMINDERS

1. Test Booklets and Answer Sheets
2. Pencils
3. Blank Forms
4. Booklets for Parents and Pupils
5. Cumulative Records

The handbook provides a suggested weekly schedule of activities, a list of helpful references, and suggestions for conferences with parents and pupils. A plan for the continuous evaluation of the program has been carefully organized. Preliminary evaluations indicate that the program has been effective.

4. *"Big Brothers" and "Big Sisters."* Some schools, especially four-year high schools, utilize an older student in helping a new student in his initial adjustments. One of the most effective of these plans is that used in the Phoenix Union High School. In this school there are both a "Big Brothers" and a "Big Sisters" organization working in cooperation with one another, but somewhat different in certain features of their organization. The general purpose and plan of the "Big Sisters" organization are given here.[7]

With friendship as the heart of its purpose, the "Big Sister" department in Phoenix Union High School welcomes new girls. The Girls League, the all-girls organization of the school, (membership 1,800) furnishes the framework within which the department—one of eight into which the League is divided—operates. A chairman assisted by a committee of thirty or more girls is responsible for the organization and administration of the program. Because this pupil orientation of new girls is essentially a guidance activity, the dean of girls acts as adviser. . . .

It is the chairman's responsibility to assign a big sister to each eighth-grade girl, to prepare big sisters to do their jobs well, and to arrange for parties to be held before the close of school, at which the high-school girls receive their little sisters.

[7] ROSENBERRY, ETHEL, Each Freshman Girl Has a Big Sister, *The Clearing House*, 16:92–96, October, 1941.

I. Introducing the Program

1. Self-appraisal Is Cooperative
2. Coordinating the Program
   a. Ordering Materials
   b. Cumulative Records
3. Orienting Classes and Individuals
4. Responsibility for Self-study

II. Measuring Instruments and Their Use

1. Mental Abilities and School Skills
2. Interests
3. Social Adjustment
4. Kits for Schools and Teachers
5. Test Administration, a Basic Plan
6. Suggested Weekly Schedule for Discovery of Aptitudes

III. Relating Test Results to Occupational Information

1. Use of Information about Pupils
2. Sources of Information—Teacher Reference
   a. Literature
   b. Pamphlets and Periodicals
   c. Mailing Lists for School Library
3. Sources of Information—Pupil Reference
   a. Literature
   b. Posters
   c. Films and Slides
   d. Radio and Television
   e. Newspapers and Magazines
4. Information about Curriculums
5. Service of School Counselor
6. Organizing a Program of Activities that Gives Occupational Information

IV. Cooperating with Parents

1. Informing Parents Concerning the Program
2. Conferences with Pupils and Parents
3. Suggestions for Conducting Conferences
   a. Planning for the Conferences
   b. The Conference
   c. Terminating the Conference
   d. Recording the Results of the Conference
   e. Supplementing the Conference

V. EVALUATIONS

1. Incidental Evaluations
2. Planned Evaluations
   a. Career Prophecies
   b. Pupil Reactions to the Program

VI. TIMELY REMINDERS

1. Test Booklets and Answer Sheets
2. Pencils
3. Blank Forms
4. Booklets for Parents and Pupils
5. Cumulative Records

The handbook provides a suggested weekly schedule of activities, a list of helpful references, and suggestions for conferences with parents and pupils. A plan for the continuous evaluation of the program has been carefully organized. Preliminary evaluations indicate that the program has been effective.

4. *"Big Brothers" and "Big Sisters."* Some schools, especially four-year high schools, utilize an older student in helping a new student in his initial adjustments. One of the most effective of these plans is that used in the Phoenix Union High School. In this school there are both a "Big Brothers" and a "Big Sisters" organization working in cooperation with one another, but somewhat different in certain features of their organization. The general purpose and plan of the "Big Sisters" organization are given here.[7]

With friendship as the heart of its purpose, the "Big Sister" department in Phoenix Union High School welcomes new girls. The Girls League, the all-girls organization of the school, (membership 1,800) furnishes the framework within which the department—one of eight into which the League is divided—operates. A chairman assisted by a committee of thirty or more girls is responsible for the organization and administration of the program. Because this pupil orientation of new girls is essentially a guidance activity, the dean of girls acts as adviser. . . .

It is the chairman's responsibility to assign a big sister to each eighth-grade girl, to prepare big sisters to do their jobs well, and to arrange for parties to be held before the close of school, at which the high-school girls receive their little sisters.

[7] ROSENBERRY, ETHEL, Each Freshman Girl Has a Big Sister, *The Clearing House,* 16:92–96, October, 1941.

The first task is the selection of those who will act as big sisters. The applications are considered with great care by the dean of girls and the chairman, and the fitness of each applicant for this important function is determined. Next the list of entering girls is checked.[8]

The list of entering girls is next checked to find those who seem to have special abilities, leadership qualities, or need for especially wise guidance. Then the big and little sisters are paired.

Such factors as these are taken into consideration: special interests, such as sports, music, stamp collecting, student-body activities; nationality; height; cultural background; social maturity; special need. An attempt is made to place together two girls with some common interest as a basis for friendship, two girls of the same nationality if that seems especially desirable, or an older girl selected for her ability to interest and to guide in the right direction a little newcomer who is likely to fall by the wayside without that guidance. . . .

The third step is preparing the big sisters to carry out their responsibility. Several days before a party for one of the little sister groups is held, the girls who are to act as big sisters for that group are called together. The purposes of this meeting are (1) to learn which girls will be unable to be at the party, (2) to acquaint girls with the procedures to follow in meeting their little sisters, in taking them on a tour of the campus, and in making contacts during the summer and on "freshman day" in September, and (3) to put the relationship of the high-school girls to their protégées on a basis of friendliness and service. Although extra girls are called to each meeting, the clerical committee sees that a reserve group is present at each party. Thus no one goes sisterless.

The chairman gives each big sister a list of suggestions which has been developed throughout the years, and girls who have served before relate experiences and make suggestions. The new big sister's own pleasing or disappointing experiences as a freshman also help her to know how she can serve best. In one case imagination was stimulated by a group of letters from an eighth-grade teacher, in which her pupils stated what each hoped her big sister would be and do.

A big sister is informed whenever her charge needs unusual assistance or has some handicap which might startle or puzzle one upon meeting her.

To bridge the long gap from June 1 to September, the chairman urges girls to contact their "little sisters" by letter, telephone, or visit.

---

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 93–94.

Such contacts go far toward reassuring an uncertain youngster about the spirit she will find in the new school, and become the incentive for swimming parties, theater parties, or other social activity. At the beginning of the year parties are held at which [9] the department chairman or her assistant introduces the Girls League presidents for the past year and for the coming year. The dean of girls adds her welcome to the presidents' and explains opportunities for school participation which are open to freshman girls. She also mentions the financial aids available, names the faculty members who will be of special help to them, and suggests certain objectives—personal, emotional, and scholastic—which they should reach by the end of the senior year.

School uniforms are modeled and their uses explained, and the program department of the League presents a short program. Then the chairman reads the pairing.

Her assistants give each girl a little tag bearing the League emblem, B^2 (read in algebraic terms), and containing space for the owner's name, address, and telephone number. The tags are filled out and exchanged.

In couples or in groups, high-school girls take their charges through buildings and over the grounds, stopping to show offices and rooms which freshmen need to know. At the desk outside the attendance office many helpful words of guidance are given as the various forms used in that office are explained. . . .

High-school customs, traditions, and regulations are expounded, and the tour closes at the cafeteria. Here the S.O.S. girls and their advisers serve punch and cake, and the girls join the freshman boys and their high-school guides. . . .

The big-sister project is based upon four major premises. Experience leads us to believe that they are sound.

First, individuals fear the unknown and direct their interests toward the known and familiar. The size of our school and an instinctive fear, augmented by rumor, that the individual will be lost in the crowd, have caused many a child to worry all summer. Some have never seen the school before. . . .

Second, guidance—good or bad—will always be given to pupils by pupils. Pupil opinion, frequently thoughtlessly uttered, will carry weight in directing other pupils toward or away from certain teachers, courses, and activities, and in coloring their attitudes, their conduct, the direction of their purposes, and their evaluation of what learning is worth while. . . .

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 94–95.

Third, pupils can get some things across to pupils more successfully than can teachers. Pupils discount teacher counsel on the value of study and proper behavior. . . .

Fourth, friendship and intelligently directed good will are vital forces that function constructively in individual adjustment and in building school morale and sympathetic community appreciation.

This is not only an effective method of helping the new girl in adjusting herself to the new surroundings, but it also provides a valuable experience for the big sisters themselves.

5. *Experiences Useful in School and in Work.* An essential part of the program of guidance in the junior high school is concerned with getting acquainted with types of work that will be helpful in choice of courses and schools and in personal adjustment. The organization of the curriculum of the junior high school has been made with this in mind. In the seventh and eighth grades there is little choice, but the subjects offered are chosen with the idea of giving students an acquaintance with the major fields of human activities and, more specifically, with the specialized work offered in the later years of schoolwork. Hence, we have English, general mathematics, social studies, general science, practical arts, and, often, general language. The purpose of these is described in Chap. VII. They perform the function of tryout courses to enable the student to gage his own abilities and his own interests, and to introduce him to the activities and the major lines of studies and courses open to him, beginning with the ninth grade. In addition to these are the short unit tryout courses, which also are found helpful.

The experiences of students in these courses are utilized in class discussions and in personal interviews with the counselor as a basis for the choice of courses in the ninth grade. These choices lead directly to differentiation of work in the senior high school. We thus have provided for provisional choice, at least, of courses and of schools after the period of the junior high schools. In personal counsel and in class discussions the home-room sponsor and the counselor have all the information available from tests, examinations, school records, and outside studies that bear upon each individual. These guide the process of discussion and of counseling so that the needs of each individual may be met, as far as it is possible to do this. Choice of studies for the ninth grade is made in the eighth grade.

After the courses for the ninth grade are chosen and the work begun, each student has the opportunity to try himself out for a year or a part of a year. As seen in the Boston pamphlet this experience offers the basis for a further discussion of offerings of the senior high school and, if necessary, a reconsideration of the tentative choice made in the beginning of the ninth grade.

During the ninth grade, definite choice of courses and curriculums for the tenth grade is made. The plan of visits by junior-high-school students to senior high schools is also very frequently employed in order to give them a better idea of what the senior high school is like. This helps in choice and also assists in adjustment to the new school.

6. *Dangers of Forced Choices.* At this point it may be well to call attention to a real danger apparent in some of our junior high schools. This is the danger of an overemphasis upon the necessity for early and definite planning on the part of all pupils. There is a readiness for life-goal planning just as there is readiness for reading. Teachers and counselors are sometimes overanxious and stress too much the need for immediate formulation of both educational and vocational goals. The ground for this must be very carefully laid; interests must be broadened and new ones developed. Readiness for making such plans does not necessarily come to all pupils in the same grade or at the same time; it is a progressive process, a growth. The effect of stressing the need for making life goals and choosing lifework is often disastrous. It sometimes prevents natural development, stunts growth, interferes with the best choice, distorts personality, and produces maladjustments. We should continually remember that we are not directors, not producers of robots, however effective they may be for war and for carrying out the plans of an overlord; we are guides and helpers in the development of men and women.

V. STAY-IN-SCHOOL CAMPAIGNS

Closely related to that part of guidance concerned with choice of school and adjustment to it is the effort directed toward keeping children in school, especially after the compulsory-attendance age. This has come to be called the "Stay-in-school Campaign." It is directed toward children, parents, and employers and has for its purpose selling the idea of the value of further

schooling and the handicaps of the uneducated and untrained. It is also closely related to guidance in the choice of an occupation. Since the general increase in the age for compulsory school attendance, the stricter enforcement of attendance laws, and the extension of child-labor laws, these campaigns are not so prominent as before. They are used, however, so frequently on the college level, even extending into the last two years of the secondary school, that special treatment may not be out of place.

This campaign sometimes takes the form of a definite, intensive drive for a limited period—in Education Week or at some time when a special need develops. It is, at present, more frequently a steady, consistent program of propaganda directed through classwork and assemblies, through Parent-Teacher associations, through Rotary Clubs, and similar organizations. Its purpose is, in general, (1) to sell the idea of the value of education and the dangers of lack of education and (2) to emphasize the attractiveness of the school and the pleasure that students will get by attending.

1. *"Money Value of Education."* In the outlines of classwork given on pages 328 to 340, a prominent place was given to the values of education. These values are frequently emphasized by the use of charts, cartoons, posters, and illustrations of all kinds that are displayed on the bulletin boards and hung up conspicuously in different parts of the building. They are often displayed in business offices and public buildings in order to arouse the interest of parents and employers. Most of these charts are based upon material in "The Money Value of Education,"[19] and more recent publications of the same kind. A few samples of those most commonly used will be given in order to indicate their general character and to point out certain difficulties and dangers in their use. These are taken from "The Money Value of Education" and from other charts used in different cities. The first poster tells its own story of the relative wages received by those who remained in school until eighteen as compared with those who left at fourteen.

The second poster shows the opportunity of the college-trained man and the extent to which college men rule the nation.

[19] The Money Value of Education, *U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin,* 1917, No. 22, Washington, D.C., 1917.

POSTER No. 1

WHAT FOUR YEARS IN SCHOOL PAID [10a]

Wages of Two Groups of Brooklyn Citizens

	Age at Leaving School	
	Fourteen	Eighteen
At fourteen.................	$200	
At sixteen..................	$250	
At eighteen.................	$350	$500
At twenty..................	$475	$750
At twenty-two..............	$575	$1,000
At twenty-four.............	$600	$1,150
At twenty-five..............	$688	$1,550
Total salary 11 years......	$5,112.50	
Total salary 7 years.......	....	$7,337.50

It Pays to Continue Your Studies

POSTER No. 2

EDUCATION AND STATESMANSHIP [10a]

Less than 1 per cent of American Men are College Graduates yet this 1 per cent of College Graduates Furnishes

50 per cent of our Presidents
35 per cent of the Members in Congress
47 per cent of Speakers of the House
54 per cent of the Vice-Presidents
62 per cent of the Secretaries of State
52 per cent of the Secretaries of Treasury
67 per cent of the Attorneys-General
69 per cent of the Justices of the Supreme Court

50 per cent of the Men Composing the Constitutional Conventions were College Graduates.

[10a] The Money Value of Education, *U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, 1917, No. 22, Washington, D.C., 1917.

The third poster attempts to show in dollars and cents what each day in school is worth.

Poster No. 3

High School—We Pay $9.25 per Day [11]

If you ever hear of a boy or girl who wants to quit school, when it is unnecessary; if you ever hear of parents who are thinking of putting their children to work, when it is unnecessary, just bring these figures to their attention:

Every day spent in school pays the child $9.25.

Here is the proof based on the wage scale of 1913:

Uneducated laborers earn on the average $500 per year for 40 years, a total of $20,000.

High-school graduates earn on the average $1,000 per year for 40 years, a total of $40,000.

This education required 12 years of school of 180 days each, a total of 2,160 days in school.

If 2,160 days at school add $20,000 to the income for life, then each day at school adds $9.25.

The child that stays out of school to earn less than $9 a day is losing money, not making money.

In the fourth poster we see again the handicap to the young man or woman who does not have at least a high-school education.

Poster No. 4

Your Opportunity

Have you ever stopped to think how many opportunities are closed to you if you do not complete a high-school education?

The world today wants men and women who are trained.

The high school offers a training that is necessary for entrance into nearly all of the professions and skilled occupations.

It is a most excellent preparation for the boy or girl who does not wish or cannot afford to go to college.

If one does not graduate from high school he cannot go to college.

He cannot go to a state normal school in most of the states.

He cannot go to a first-class law school.

He cannot go to a first-class medical school.

He cannot go to a first-class dental school.

[11] *Ibid.*

He cannot go to a first-class pharmacy school.

He cannot go to a first-class engineering school.

He cannot be admitted to a Naval School of Aviation.

He cannot be admitted to an Army Aviation School.

He cannot get a first-class position in a newspaper office.

He cannot get a place in any business office with unlimited opportunities for advancement.

Get a high-school education. It is the foundation for success. Without it you will be seriously handicapped; with it you will be far better prepared to make your mark. You must learn if you wish to earn. Rewards are paid for knowledge. The high school offers you an opportunity to get a fair start toward success.

The last poster shows the tragic experience of a girl who left school in the first half of the ninth grade.

Poster No. 5

She Was a 9B Girl

She dropped out at 15 years 1 month
And this is what she did

Factory Work..................	$11.56, 6 weeks, 2 days—laid off
	Idle, 4 weeks
Clerical Work.................	$11.00, 6 weeks, 4 days—laid off
	Idle, 2 weeks, 2 days
General Office Work...........	$10.00, 3 weeks—not steady
	Idle, 2 weeks
Switchboard	$10.00, 1 week, 4 days—not steady
	Idle, 2 weeks, 3 days
Factory Work..................	$12.00, ...(?)

This is a record of six jobs in seven months. She got jobs that paid good wages, but she was not steady or capable enough to hold them.

Time—28 weeks, 3 days. Work 16 weeks, 6 days. Idle, 11 weeks, 4 days.

Average wage: $6.80 a week. At sixteen she was doing factory work again, another temporary job. The time she wasted at $6.80 a week would have completed her first year high school, and helped her to gain steadiness and reliability.
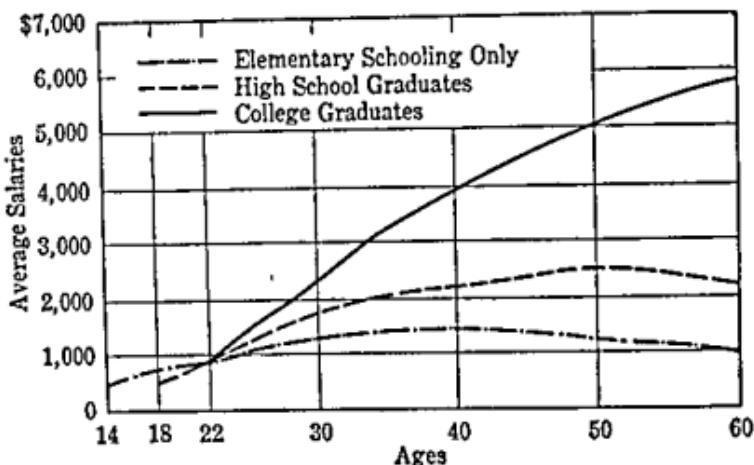
FIG. 21. Money value of education. (*Adapted from Everett W. Lord.*)
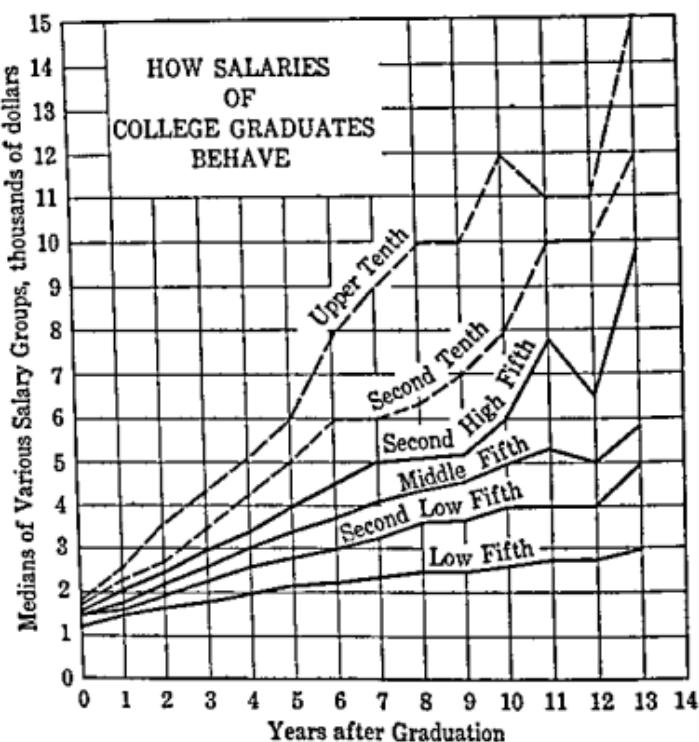
FIG. 22. Rates of increases in various salary groups of recent Massachusetts Institute of Technology men. (*Adapted from Anthony Annoble, from the New York Times, Mar. 19, 1933.*)

Figure 21 is another poster used very frequently. This shows at ten-year periods the relative salaries of men with different education after graduation up to sixty. The differences seen are

very striking. Figure 22 shows another phase of the same situation. Here the differences in salaries of graduates of the same institution are compared. It shows very clearly that the larger salaries at every age period are given to men of superior scholarship.

2. *Fallacies in Data.* These posters, arranged in striking headlines and accompanied with pictures of the handicapped boy or girl, are used very widely. Their use has been severely criticized on the ground that they are not true. The manifest implication to be drawn from the way in which the material is presented and from the specific statement in the third poster is that those who graduate from high school will receive higher wages than those who do not, that a college education enables one to earn more money; that is, the cause of the greater earning power is the increased education received. There can be little doubt that college-trained men, as a group, are receiving higher salaries than those who are not college trained and that they are holding more important positions as a group. No one denies this. The point of dispute is whether they are getting higher salaries *because* they have a college education or whether it is merely because they were better men and would have received the higher salaries anyway, even if they had not had the college degree. There is no proof of either contention, but the presumption favors those who contend that the higher salary is due to superior ability: that is, high school and college act as agencies for the selection of the abler men and women; the less able drop out because they cannot do the work. There can be no question that those who go to college are, as a group, higher in ability than those who do not. There are, of course, many who do not go to college who are as intelligent, as able as any who go to college, and among college students one finds a number who are very mediocre; but it has been amply demonstrated that the college group is superior. Consequently, if we could select 100 young men of equal ability, send 50 of them to college and 50 into occupations, we probably would find at the end of twenty years not so much difference in income as that indicated by the figures; but *we might.* College training may make a difference and probably does, but as yet we do not know definitely. Used in this way the material is fallacious and may possibly be harmful.

3. *Legitimate Use of Data.* There is, however, another way in which some of the same material may be used without involving this fallacy of selection. It is very apparent that there is a general increase in the amount of general education demanded for certain types of jobs. If a boy goes to a businessman today and applies for a job, one of the first questions asked is, "Are you a high-school graduate?" If he is not, *explanations must be made.* That is, the businessman is looking for his employees among high-school graduates. If the boy applying has not graduated, he must display some unusual ability or qualifications in order to get the job. In other words, he is at a disadvantage as compared with other boys who have the same, or even less, ability but who have completed high school. *It follows, then, that if the boy wants to give himself a fair chance, he will graduate from high school, and so put himself among the group to which the businessman naturally goes for employees.* It is the same with college education. For certain kinds of position, employers, by common consent, go to the group of college graduates for candidates. If you are not a college graduate, you must do something unusual to have as good a chance as they, even though you know you can do the work as well as they. A mature woman with several years of very successful experience in church and social work found her way to advancement blocked because she had never graduated from college. There was no question of her ability to do the work, but it was the unwritten requirement that college graduation was necessary for the important positions. Accordingly, she very sensibly gave up her position and went to college, sitting in the same classes with young, immature girls, taking work that was far below her ability and totally unnecessary for her, *in order that she might give herself a fair chance,* that she might place herself in the select class of college graduates. She may have been better qualified for her work after she had received her college degree than she was before she went to college, but the difference was probably quite small. What did make the difference was that she had *proved* that she was of college graduate ability, that she had fulfilled the requirements placed for the job.

From this point of view some of the tables and charts have real value. They show the difference in income, in position, and in opportunity between those who keep on in school and those who

do not. Such posters as 1 and 3 are definitely misleading and should not be used. Poster 2 and others like it can readily be used if we emphasize the slogans. "Make sure that you put yourself in the class to which employers go for the kind of job you want." "Give yourself a fair chance in life." Poster 4 splendidly illustrates the handicap placed upon one who is not a high-school graduate if he has any ambition to do any of the things referred to or to go into the occupations for which this training is required. Poster 5 definitely pins its faith in the school as an agency that increases steadiness and reliability and increases efficiency. This is not so objectionable as posters 1 and 3, for it does not compare those who stay in school with those who drop out and thus avoids the fallacy of selection. Schools should increase steadiness and reliability, but one may question whether such a result is inevitable. The message in this poster is clear, however, and cannot do harm.

4. *Results of Campaigns.* Stay-in-school campaigns have resulted in the reduction of elimination and have helped to sell the idea of extended education. Their value has often been questioned on the ground that everyone should not be in school, that it is best for some individuals and for society that they go to work rather than remain in school as schools are now organized. This is undeniably true and, until schools are greatly reorganized from the elementary school to the college to meet the needs of all types of students, the needs of many of those who now drop out will not be met. But it is also true that the quickest and surest way of securing reforms and readjustments to meet the needs of those who drop out is to *have these students in the schools.* If they are in school, we should take care of them; when they are not in school, we too often forget them. Efforts to keep children in school and school reorganization to meet their needs should go on together.

Stay-in-school campaigns are helpful, then, because they extend the good influence of the schools to many who would not otherwise obtain an education, because they place the young person in a more advantageous position for securing a position, and because they hasten desirable reforms in our schools.

REFERENCES

1. CAMPBELL, ALLEN: Guidance in the Junior High School, *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 20:150–152, March, 1945. Contains many good suggestions.

2. COOPER, D. H., and O. E. PETERSON: Schools for Young Adolescents: The Upper Elementary and Lower Secondary Grades, *Proceedings of the Superintendents of Study Club*, Chicago, 1949.

3. DETJEN, MARY FORD, and ERVIN W. DETJEN: "Home Room Guidance Programs for the Junior School Years," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1940. Describes practices in many schools in the group discussion of guidance problems.

4. GRUHN, WILLIAM T., and HARL R. DOUGLASS: "The Modern Junior High School," The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947. Chapters XI and XII are especially helpful.

5. MACFARLAND, J. W., and J. G. UMSTATTD: "The Homeroom in 215 Texas Secondary Schools," The Texas Study of Secondary Education, Austin, Texas, 1949.

6. McKOWN, HARRY C.: "Home Room Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1934. Contains a wealth of illustrative material on courses and discussions for home rooms.

7. PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL DISTRICT: "The Self Appraisal Program of Guidance in the Junior High Schools of Philadelphia," Board of Public Education, Philadelphia, 1944. This is a project that merits careful study and contains many suggestions that are of value to counselors and school administrators.

8. SACHS, GEORGIA MAY: Evaluation of Group Guidance in the Junior High School, *School Review*, 52:205–214, April, 1944. Contains suggestions for guidance in the junior high school.

The following references at the end of Chap. XV should also be consulted: 1, 4, 6, 9, 13, 18, and 22.

METHODS OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

I. SPECIALIZATION OF GUIDANCE

After the junior high school, guidance in some of its aspects becomes more specialized. During the senior high school many will be leaving school, others will continue their education but will be scattered in many types of schools. Vocational interests will diverge more and more, and developing maturity will necessitate many different types of adjustment. This divergence and specialization demand more intensive and specialized guidance services. For this reason, we shall in the following discussion consider these four aspects of guidance separately: (1) educational guidance, (2) vocational guidance, (3) guidance for individual development, and (4) guidance for leisure time. This is done for convenience of discussion only. Guidance is a unified process, each aspect of it is dependent upon all other aspects. Wise choice of occupation is dependent upon previous schooling and opportunities for further schooling; it is influenced by personal qualities, aptitudes, and characteristics. Some educational choices and adjustments are also dependent upon vocational choices and plans and upon personal characteristics; others, however, are quite independent of vocational considerations. They are all parts of one unified whole. However, in our usual school curriculum we do find it helpful for certain purposes to discuss geography, science, and history separately; for the same reason we find it helpful to discuss the different aspects of guidance separately.

II. MEANING OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Educational guidance, insofar as it can be distinguished from other aspects of guidance, is concerned with the assistance given to pupils in their choices and adjustments with relation to schools, curriculums, courses, and school life.

III. Aims and Purposes of Educational Guidance
in the Senior High School

The specific aims and purposes of educational guidance on the secondary-school level are as follows:

1. To help the student secure information concerning the possibility and desirability of further schooling and to develop a method by which he can determine the value of such further schooling for himself.

2. To enable him to find the purpose and function of each type of school that he might attend.

3. To help him secure definite information regarding the offerings of the school that he is now attending and those that he might attend, of the colleges that he might wish to enter, and of the purpose of each course and curriculum.

4. To give him an opportunity to try out various studies so that he may gain some insight into the school life and work that are ahead, in order that an intelligent choice may be made of school, college, course, and clubs or other activities.

5. To enable him to find the requirements for entrance into these schools and colleges and the abilities that are necessary for success in them.

6. To assist him to secure such information about his own ability to do the work of the schools ahead and about his own interests in such work as will assist him in the choice of school or course.

7. To help him to adjust himself to the curriculum, the school, and the social life connected with it.

IV. Readjustments Necessary

No matter how efficiently the work of the lower school has been done, certain parts of the process of adjustment must be done by the school into which the student enters. This adjustment is made along the same general lines as that described for the junior high school. It is performed by class discussions, by the home room, by personal counsel, by home-room sponsor, by counselor, by "big sisters" or "big brothers," and by principal. The school assembly is usually utilized to provide certain information of a general nature and to develop a feeling of school spirit. Talks are given by pupils, teachers, and the principal; chorus singing and school yells all contribute their part. Handbooks, similar to those used in colleges, are often employed, and

the school paper is a great help. Personal assistance is often necessary for individual students in cases of maladjustment of student to courses. Not infrequently the student finds that the courses chosen for the tenth grade do not, after actual experience, prove interesting or profitable. Changes in plans are sometimes made imperative because of changed home conditions. Readjustments must then be made. Lack of adjustment between students and teachers also needs attention. As in the junior high school, emotional disturbances accompanying adolescence are not uncommon and require great care and wisdom if they are not to result in serious maladjustment. All of these are taken care of in the same way as that already described in Chap. XVII, sometimes by the home-room sponsor, often by the counselor or dean, and sometimes by the principal.

V. GUIDANCE IN THE SELECTION OF FURTHER EDUCATION

The most important educational choice for which the senior high school is directly responsible is that regarding further education, especially in college, normal school, or some form of special school. This, of course, is often made in the junior high school but, even if it is made there and if it is unchanged, much remains to be done in the senior high school in making plans for achieving the goals set up.

All schools should have on hand and assembled for use the information described in Chap. XIII. This information, combined with the facts about individuals obtained from school records, intelligence tests, personality ratings, and the other ways described in Chaps. V to X, forms the basis for the assistance to be given. Here is also where the parents must continually be consulted. Students should themselves investigate different colleges and schools. Class or group discussions must be provided for in every grade of the senior high school. These may well be in the home room, or there may be special classes in charge of the counselor or a teacher assigned for the purpose. In some schools, the special work of guiding students in the choice of college or normal school is assigned, not to the regular counselor but to some teacher who makes a specialty of this particular work. After the choice of the next school has been made, much remains to be done by way of securing definite

information regarding courses or majors, costs, living conditions, clothing, and general requirements.

Most of the failures in college can be prevented by proper guidance in the high school. Some failures are due to inability to do the work required; these students should be advised not to go to college at all. Some failures are because the student has selected the wrong college; others are due to lack of adjustment to college life. Most of these can be prevented by proper guidance. Too many schools take no responsibility for their graduates after they leave the school, apparently thinking that their responsibility ends at this point. Although the major responsibility for the student must be assumed by the school to which he goes, the secondary school still has a definite function to perform. There is a growing tendency for the secondary school to follow its students at least through the first year of college and to ask and receive rather detailed descriptions of the progress of each of its graduates. *This not only enables the secondary school to discover ways of improving the preparation of students for college but often gives it the opportunity of directly helping the student himself.* We must again emphasize the continuity of the guidance process; there should be no sudden break either in the process or in the responsibility for guiding the individual. The responsibility of the secondary school should continue in an ever-decreasing degree after the student leaves school, and the responsibility of the college should increase continually.

VI. Basis for Choice between Further Education and Employment

What should be the basis for the decision regarding further education? Many are saying that *too large a number of our young men and women are going to college* and are urging that we take immediate steps to reduce this number. They point to the tremendous *increase in enrollment during the past fifteen years* and to the appalling figures of student mortality in the freshman year. We may question the validity of the argument as such, but we cannot blind ourselves to the fact. There are many who enter college only to fail and to be forced to leave before the end of the first year. These failures are not all due

to lack of adjustment or of care on the part of the college. Whatever the cause may be, steps should be taken to prevent this tragic waste. This responsibility rests upon both the secondary school and the college. Part of the waste is due to wrong choice of college.

The first basis for choice should be ability to do college work. The important questions are not, "Are too many going to college?" but, "Are those going to college who should go?" and "Are those who should not go to college guided into some other line of work?" In considering the question of the ability to do college work, we need to remember that colleges differ in their standards and also in the particular types of ability, both general and special, that are required for successful work. A student might fail at Princeton but succeed in some other college. This might be either because Princeton requires a higher ability for success (if it does) or because Princeton specializes in such a narrow range of abilities (if it does) that the particular student will fail even though he has certain very high special abilities in other lines. Colleges also differ in the care and treatment of their students.

After years of careful study we have still no really reliable measures for predicting success in college. This is due partly to the variation in colleges, both in standards and in types, and partly to the complexity of what we call "college aptitude," or ability to succeed in college. Experimental research in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and throughout the country has found the highest correlation to be about 0.70 between certain factors and "success" in college as measured by absence of serious failures. According to these studies the best criteria are (1) percentile ranking in high school, (2) average of high-school marks, (3) ranking in scholastic aptitude tests. This correlation of 0.70 is considered high as a general correlation and is fairly satisfactory for groups, but it is by no means sufficient when predicting the success or failure of individuals. Based on this experimental evidence the chances are that, using such criteria alone, a counselor would predict incorrectly in about half the cases. Other criteria are necessary in the guidance of students toward or away from college. It is impossible to state with definiteness just what these criteria are. The qualities or characteristics most commonly accepted are (1) interest in college work, (2) purpose, (3) persistency, (4) willingness to study, (5) ability to get along

with people. *Some recent studies, however, have seemed to indicate that these qualities are by no means monopolized by the "good college prospect," and some are not definitely associated with success in college.* Prediction of success in college in terms of personality and adjustment are, as yet, quite unsatisfactory. One of our most progressive colleges has this to say about the problem of admission:

> The experience of those who have studied the records of students in Stephens College indicates that it is impossible to determine the wisdom of admitting a student solely on the basis of rank in the high-school class or high-school grades. Such information as *rapport* between members of a family, health status, adjustment to associates, personal aims and ideals are far more significant for predicting the probable success of the student.[1]

We are warranted in saying that a student who ranks low in intelligence tests, who has low marks in high school, who shows no particular interest in study, and who manifests no high degree of persistence will almost surely fail in college work. There are many persons of this kind who are found attempting to get into college and some who actually do get in.

Perhaps the best method of judging probable ability to do college work is to have before one the complete cumulative record of the student through a series of years. This will, in most cases, settle the question in one way or another. In coming to a decision, the counselor should not be governed by any mechanical averages but should examine the entire record very carefully for evidence of fitness or lack of fitness for college work.

The combination of characteristics, the entire pattern of abilities, is the important factor to be considered. We should not assume that all who rank high in "mental ability" will succeed in college. Lack of certain fundamental characteristics, such as interest, purposes, or persistency, may be the determining factor. Nor should we assume that all who rank low cannot succeed. There are too many cases where such students have succeeded in college to warrant snap judgments. Other qualities than those measured by tests are vastly important. Measures that are valid

[1] *Stephens College News Reporter*, 2:1, October, 1942.

for groups are not for individuals. Great wisdom and deep humility are indispensable in counseling.

Another thing that should be taken into consideration is whether the student has a real desire to go to college or not. If he dislikes the idea, if he has no interest in college, it is a question whether he should go. The problem here is sometimes that of awakening an interest. So often, young people go to college merely because they are forced to go by their parents; in many cases parents have no other reason for sending their children to college than that of the social prestige that is supposed to result from graduation from college. Sometimes wealthy parents send their children to college merely that they may have more or less pleasant employment until they are twenty-one or twenty-two and ready to assume responsibilities in business or ready for matrimony. These reasons may be good ones but are obviously not the most fundamental.

One of the important points to be considered in this decision is the financial ability of the student and of his parents. College education is very expensive at present and will probably be more expensive in the future. Here, again, we should remember that there is great variation in the costs. State universities charge no tuition or at most a very low one; private colleges charge $400 a year tuition alone, and some even more than this. When confronted with the lack of financial ability to attend a particular college, the decision might be to enter some other institution or to find ways in which the financial obligations may be met. This may be by way of scholarships, part-time jobs, or a loan.

VII. CHOICE OF THE SCHOOL OR COLLEGE

A question that deserves far more consideration than is usually given to it relates to the particular college to be selected. Colleges are not all alike in entrance requirements, cost, spirit, or opportunities offered. Proximity to the home of the student is often a controlling factor. Some students need a continuance of home influence; others need to get away from home and learn to be independent. Some need a small college; others, a large university.

Some colleges have developed around themselves an aura of respectability, a halo of superiority that is often mistaken for unusual merit. This is the result of long tradition, difficulty of

entrance, long waiting lists of candidates for admission, or sometimes definite propaganda. This has one advantage in that it does sometimes help in securing a position for the graduate. It should, however, not be mistaken for real merit. Institutions do differ in real effectiveness of instruction, and some institutions that have this aura really merit it, but others do not. Leaders in all walks of life are by no means confined to graduates of so-called "high-ranking" institutions. There are hundreds of good small colleges scattered about the country where a student may secure a really effective education. Indeed, some of the men and women who have received their graduate training in large universities of high reputation and are, therefore, claimed as their product have taken their undergraduate work in a good small college. It is often a blessing, rather than a tragedy, that a boy or girl finds himself unable to gain admission to a college that has a high reputation. Much depends upon what the student brings with him.

Two of the most frequent reasons for the choice of a college are (1) that the father or the mother graduated from that particular college and (2) that some friend, possibly the teacher or the counselor, did. This is emphasized by the propaganda organized by nearly every college and spread broadcast by the alumni. "Harveton University wants the best. Alumni, be on the lookout for good strong men: scholars, athletes. Get hold of them; send them to Harveton." This may be entirely legitimate but the result is that Mr. Brown, an alumnus of Harveton, principal of the Jonesboro High School, picks out the best students and the finest athletes and tries to influence them to go to Harveton. Now Harveton may be a good university, but it may not be the best place for these particular boys. Alumni are very likely to want to send the best candidates to their own university; "Let the others go to Podunk College." The reasons given above are all too common, and none of them are valid. Colleges and universities do differ, in spirit, offerings, and suitability for certain types of young men and women. No choice of a college should be made for a student or by a student without a very careful study of the institution and of the student to determine the suitability of one for the other. The decision should be made on the basis of the needs of the student and the degree to which the institution meets these needs. When two

institutions are equally suitable and equally good, other reasons may enter, but in no other case. The question is altogether too vital; it means too much in the life of the individual young man or woman, to be decided upon any other basis than the needs of the individual.

Information about college entrance requirements should be known by students and parents long enough in advance of graduation from high school that subjects necessary for entrance may be taken. The parents of a fine young man had planned for years to send him to Harveton University, but when he was a senior in high school they found he could not enter Harveton because he had only two years of Latin and four years was required. Such a situation is entirely inexcusable. Either the parents or the school were very much to blame; probably the blame rested on each, but mostly upon the school.

VIII. Schools for Nurses

In this discussion we have mentioned only colleges and universities, but the same points apply with equal force to normal schools and special types of schools. Within the past few years schools for nurses have become increasingly prominent, and the importance of guidance in the choice of such a course of training warrants some special consideration. The choice of a school for nurses is, of course, made only after a choice of occupation, but this is true also, in many cases, of choice of college, especially an engineering school or a school of business, or in the case of the premedical course. Through the efforts of their national organizations, schools for nurses have raised their standards and have come to some agreement regarding the admission of students. Studies have been made to determine the abilities and personal characteristics essential for success as a nurse, and much valuable information has been assembled that will help students in high school not only in considering nursing as a profession but in choosing a particular school. This information should be assembled in every school and made available to every student who is thinking of entering any of the schools for nurses. Especially is it necessary to prepare the girl for the kind of work she will have to perform in the school with its rigorous standards, regimented program, and restricted social activities. The difficulties of adjustment to the work of such a school are far greater

than in a college. Many maladjustments and failures result, not from lack of ability to do the work required, but from inability to adjust to the new conditions. Secondary schools must assume large responsibility for this preliminary adjustment. The school counselor should have at hand detailed information about the opportunities for training, the entrance requirements, and the general conditions in schools of nursing. Nurses, themselves, should be utilized not only for general talks but for personal conferences; moving pictures of nurses at work and visits to hospitals where student nurses are in training are important.

IX. METHODS OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The methods used in high school in the adjustment of the new pupil are not essentially different from those in the junior high school. Under the junior-senior-high-school plan, most of the choices of curriculums have already been made, but even in such cases changes are often necessary. This calls for careful consultation with parents and pupils, with full consideration of all data pertinent to the situation. Too often it is done hastily at the time of registration.

Orientation to the school is provided for in many schools by plans similar to those described in Chap. XVII. The Erie Senior High School has an "Information, Please!" handbook for senior-high-school pupils similar to the ones for the Junior High School. This is studied in the tenth-grade home rooms, and adjustments are facilitated by informal discussions and personal conferences. In some schools organized on the four-year-high-school plan the first month is given over largely to the orientation of the incoming pupil. Curriculums and student clubs are chosen during this period, plans for the future are made, methods of study are discussed, and many personal adjustments are provided for. This preliminary orientation saves much time later on and prevents many cases of maladjustment.

Questions related to the choice between occupational employment immediately after graduation or further education call for constant attention throughout the secondary-school period. The general methods used to help pupils in this important decision are the same as those used in the junior high school: home-room programs, group discussions, and personal conferences. When further education is decided upon, the question becomes one of

the type of school to be chosen and, finally, the particular school to be selected. These questions are intimately tied up with choice of occupation in many cases and cannot be considered entirely apart from such aspects. However, it has been found desirable to organize some group meetings separately—those who are planning for further education in one group and those who plan to go into occupations immediately after graduation into another. As the pupils progress toward graduation and as specific choices are made, the groups will be formed of pupils who plan to go to art schools, commercial schools, schools of music, engineering schools, liberal arts colleges, or premedical courses. As choices of specific schools are made, it may be desirable to have separate meetings for those who plan to go to Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania, Vassar, Bryn Mawr, Oberlin, etc. Much individual counseling will always be necessary to provide for differences in choice, in abilities and characteristics, and in questions involving financial aid and home adjustments.

Colleges willingly cooperate with the secondary school in many ways. They send literature describing the offerings, facilities, requirements, and financial aid; they send representatives to schools on request; they invite seniors to the campus for various athletic events and for conferences lasting from one day to a week, such as those described in Chap. XXI. They participate in the activities of "college night" as organized in many schools and often offer their services in a testing program that helps to determine those who are most likely to succeed in different types of institutions.

Some high schools place special emphasis upon college-bound students to understand conditions that will be faced on entrance to college and give them assistance in such matters as budgeting their time, methods of study in college, the use of the library, note taking, examinations, dormitory life and personal relations with other students, home adjustments, management of finances, and many others that may seem trivial but often become very important in the college life of the student. This help is given in group conferences, in individual counseling, and in judicious selection of reading material. The increasing cooperation between college and secondary school in connection with the first year of college life has proved to be very helpful and will probably be greatly extended in the future.

16. TROW, WILLIAM CLARK, ROSALIND ZAPP, and HARRY C. McKOWN: "Meeting Difficulties," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940. Considers many typical problems of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade students, such as controlling temper, daydreaming, taking criticism, etc.

17. TROW, WILLIAM CLARK, ROSALIND ZAPP, and HARRY C. McKOWN: "You and Your Friends," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1939. Deals with the problems of making friends; for junior high schools.

18. WARTERS, JANE: "Achieving Maturity," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Designed to help young people as they are approaching maturity. .

19. WARTERS, JANE: "High School Personnel Work Today," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. Deals with the problems and difficulties of guidance workers.

20. WILLIAMSON, E. G.: "Counseling Adolescents," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950. A revision of "How to Counsel Students."

21. WRENN, C. GILBERT, and WILLIS E. DUGAN: "Guidance Procedures in High School," University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1950. Chapters I to V are especially helpful on problems of educational guidance.

METHODS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(CURRICULUM, TRYOUT, AND EXPLORATION)

I. GENERAL ASPECTS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

By the nature of the case, many of the major problems of vocational guidance are located in the junior high school. This is true because the majority of pupils who leave school do so before reaching the tenth grade and because curricular choices involving broad selection of occupations must often be made at the beginning of the ninth grade or during the ninth grade. On this account and because many schools are still organized on the 8–4 plan, this discussion will include methods of vocational guidance in both the junior and the senior high school.

1. *Unity of Guidance.* Vocational guidance has been defined as the assistance that is given in connection with "choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and making progress in an occupation." It would be well to stress again the point already made many times, that it is impossible to separate sharply the vocational aspects of guidance from the educational, moral, and cultural aspects. In choosing a school or a course, the future occupation often bears a large part, but not always. Occupational choices depend frequently upon educational background, and they are often concerned with health, social, and cultural problems. The counselor cannot, and should not, try to keep the various aspects of guidance entirely distinct. This would be working directly contrary to that unity of character and personality that is essential. In spite of this unity and the impossibility and undesirability of separating vocational guidance from other kinds or aspects of guidance, it is helpful to consider certain parts of vocational guidance separately from other forms. Sometimes the vocational aspect stands out so clearly that it dominates everything else—civic, moral, cultural aspects shrink

into comparative insignificance. Often, choice of occupation and getting a job are absolutely necessary and prerequisite to everything else—good citizenship, culture, and even good character itself. Recognizing the impossibility of complete separation, we shall attempt to stress the methods that are commonly used primarily to assist in choice of occupation, in getting a job, and in becoming adjusted to the job.

2. *Specific Aims of Vocational Guidance.* The specific aims of vocational guidance may be stated as follows:

1. To assist the student to acquire such knowledge of the characteristics and functions, the duties and rewards of the group of occupations within which his choice will probably lie as he may need for intelligent choice.

2. To enable him to find what general and specific abilities, skills, etc., are required for the group of occupations under consideration and what are the qualifications of age, preparation, sex, etc., for entering them.

3. To give opportunity for experiences in school (tryout courses) and out of school (after-school and vacation jobs) that will give such information about conditions of work as will assist the individual to discover his own abilities and help in the development of wider interests.

4. To help the individual develop the point of view that all honest labor is worthy and that the most important bases for choice of an occupation are (*a*) the peculiar service that the individual can render to society, (*b*) personal satisfaction in the occupation, and (*c*) aptitude for the work required.

5. To assist the individual to acquire a technique of analysis of occupational information and to develop the habit of analyzing such information before making a final choice.

6. To assist him to secure such information about himself, his abilities, general and specific, his interests, and his powers as he may need for wise choice.

7. To assist economically handicapped children who are above the compulsory attendance age to secure, through public or private funds, scholarships or other financial assistance so that they may have opportunities for further education in accordance with their vocational plans.

8. To assist the student to secure a knowledge of the facilities offered by various educational institutions for vocational training and the requirements for admission to them, the length of training offered, and the cost of attendance.

9. To help the worker to adjust himself to the occupation in which he is engaged; to assist him to understand his relationships to workers in his own and related occupations and to society as a whole.

10. To enable the student to secure reliable information about the danger of alluring short cuts to fortune through short training courses and selling propositions, and of such unscientific methods as phrenology, physiognomy, astrology, numerology, or graphology, and to compare these methods with that of securing really trustworthy information and frank discussion with experts.

II. CURRICULUM AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

As in the elementary school, the curriculum of the secondary school may help or hinder the guidance work of the school. If guidance is a continuous process and if the entire life of the school is vitally concerned in the function of guidance, the curriculum should be so organized as to share in the responsibility. Although curriculums of secondary schools show that modification of offerings is proverbially slow, there are many evidences of the recognition of the need for the introduction of material on occupations. The core curriculum, described in Chap. XVI, is a definite attempt to relate the school curriculum to life activities; occupational material is used increasingly in the general subjects offered, and courses in occupations or vocational civics are frequently offered. Home-room programs usually are planned to provide for organized group guidance discussions on occupational problems. Some of these curricular activities will be discussed here.

1. *Utilization of General Materials.* Again let us emphasize the point already stated, that our problem is not so much to introduce new material primarily for the purpose of guidance as to utilize the entire work of the school organized for general educational purposes and, when possible, to use the occupational approach to vitalize and motivate and make more efficient all schoolwork. When we approach it from this point of view, we are at once confronted with an almost bewildering richness of material. The general subjects, even as usually taught, are full of valuable materials for guidance purposes; the opportunities they offer are almost unlimited for new material and new methods that would vitalize them and considerably enlarge their usefulness. Some of the ways in which these subjects are now

being modified and used for vocational guidance purposes will be described.

There are abundant opportunities in geography, history, physics, chemistry, and biology for further desirable emphasis upon industry, agriculture, and other occupations. It is difficult to teach any of these subjects without definite reference to the occupational side, but when the instructor understands the guidance value of his subject he will find hitherto unexplored opportunities to enrich and vitalize the materials of his subject. General science can hardly be taught effectively without stressing certain phases of occupational life and occupational problems. Civics and economic courses often lay their foundation in occupational situations. Probably the general subject that has the greatest possibilities for guidance is English, both English literature and English composition.

A very suggestive and helpful method for the use of various school subjects in vocational guidance has been worked out in Henrico County, Virginia, under the leadership of Bessie M. Mottley, Director of Guidance there:

> Henrico County school officials and teachers have recognized the need for better teaching in order that the child may be better prepared to fill his place in a progressive society. They believe that guidance should permeate and motivate, to some extent, the entire curriculum; therefore, interested county high-school teachers were organized into committees to study and to work out plans of correlating guidance with the subjects already included in the high-school program of studies. The term guidance is used here in its broadest sense, including educational, vocational, moral, civic, and social guidance.[1]

Such bulletins have been compiled in commercial subjects, English, French, history, social studies, home economics, Latin, mathematics, and science. Each bulletin begins with a statement of the objectives of such a correlation of the subject with guidance. This is followed by detailed suggestions to teachers of ways in which the subject may be useful for guidance purposes, lists of topics are given with references, and stimulating questions are suggested. These booklets show the possibilities

---

[1] Foreword of the bulletins on various school subjects. In mimeographed form only.

for such correlation and open up alluring possibilities in every school subject.

2. *Material in Supplementary Reading Lists.* The lists of books for supplementary or outside reading should and often do contain books that deal with various phases of occupations. These books should, of course, be chosen for their literary value as well as for their contribution to the study of occupations. They may stress qualities and characteristics necessary for success in occupations, or they may give definite information about occupations. The following list is a sample of a few books of this kind:

ATKINSON, ELEANOR: "Johnny Appleseed," Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., New York. Story of a man who planted many apple orchards in the Ohio Valley after the Revolution.

FERBER, EDNA: "Roast Beef Medium," Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., New York. Story of the business adventures of Emma McChestney, the traveling saleswoman, who successfully competes with men.

BEACH, REX: "The Iron Trail," A. L. Burt Company. Describes the building of a railroad to the copper regions of Alaska. It is very good to illustrate the work of civil engineering.

ROLT-WHEELER, B.: "Boy with the U.S. Foresters," Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. Describes U.S. Forestry Service. The story is subordinated to the descriptions.

BASSETT, SARA WARE: "The Story of Iron and Steel," Penn Publishing Company. Depicts life in the steel mills and gives a fair idea of several of the steel trades. Story barely sufficient to carry descriptions.

EATON, W. P.: "Peanut, Cub Reporter," W. A. Wilde Company. A fair picture of the difficulties in the way of one who enters the field of newspaper work. Popular with boys.

PEATTIE, MRS. ELLA: "Lotta Embury's Career," Houghton Mifflin Company. Story of a girl who went to Chicago to study music. Shows the difficulties in the way of one who would really succeed as a vocalist.

MARTIN, GEORGE MADDEN: "Emmy Lou," Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc. Story of a little girl's experiences in school and how she misunderstood things. Shows how teachers fail to make children understand.

WRAY, ANGELINA W.: "Jean Mitchell's School," Public School Publishing Company. Story of a slender young woman in gray linen who possesses to a marked degree the elements of a good teacher. For persons thinking of taking up teaching.

A very helpful list of books that could be used in this way is given in "Vocations in Fiction, An Annotated Bibliography," by Mary R. Lingenfelter and Marie A. Hanson, published by the

American Library Association, Chicago, 1932. This contains a list of 349 books and is carefully annotated.

3. *English Composition.* An excellent example of the use of English composition for assistance in vocational guidance is the plan used in the Pittsburgh high schools. In the required work in English composition for the junior high school are included various general topics relating to occupations and occupational choices. The outline of the work will be given as an illustration of what may be done.

<div align="center">

ENGLISH COMPOSITION [2]

Vocational Guidance Topics

</div>

7-B   A. Aim: To learn the pupil's interests and environment in order to stimulate his ambition.
    B. Content: Suggested topics:
        Things I Have Made.
        The Shows We Have Given.
        How I Help at Home.

7-A   A. Aim: To stimulate ambition.
    B. Content: Topics along industrial, commercial, and professional lines: Lives of inventors, industrial leaders, professional men such as Edison, Westinghouse, Langley, Brashear, Watt, Ford, Schwab, etc.
        a. How has his life contributed to progress and betterment of the world?
        b. Has his life made him happy? Why?
        c. What do you like about his life?

8-B   A. Aim: To awaken a realization of individual characteristics and of possibilities for future development.
    B. Content: Topics to awaken realization of self.
        Suggested topics:
        My Ideal Man (or Woman).
        My Hobby.
        Why I Have Chosen My Course.

8-A   A. Aim: To turn student's thoughts to the opportunities for choice of lifework.
    B. Content: Suggested topics:
        The Equipment Necessary for Success.
        My Physical and Mental Equipment for My Chosen Vocation.

[2] PITTSBURGH PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Pittsburgh: Board of Public Education, *Vocational Guidance Bulletin,* 1922, pp. 54, 55.

9-B A. Aim: To develop idea of social service.
    B. Content: Suggested topics:
        What Can I Do to Improve Condition of Our Street to
           Make It More Attractive?
        Does Courtesy Pay at Home? In Business? In School?
           In Social Life? In the Street?
        What Special Opportunities for Service to My Community
           Does My Chosen Lifework Give Me?
        How Can I Be a Successful Student?
9-A A. Aim: To appreciate the personal value of continued education.
    B. Content: Suggested topics:
        What Work Is Open to Me at the End of My Junior-high-
           school Course? Contrast with Enlarged Opportunities
           of Graduate of Senior High School.
        Importance of High-school Education.
        Arguments for Continuing High-school Course.
        Conduct toward Clerks—Hired Help.
        Some Good Moral Principles.
        Character in Vocation.

Other topics are also suggested for the senior high school.

Davis [3] organized work of a similar nature in the Central High School at Grand Rapids, Mich. He believes strongly in the life-career motive as a vitalizing factor in all schoolwork. Whether or not we can agree with him in his extreme emphasis upon this motive, we must admit that the life-career motive should be more frequently used by teachers of English composition to provide topics of vital interest to pupils and to motivate investigations into occupational problems.

4. *Industrial Arts.* Industrial arts, including home economics and various kinds of shopwork, give definite training in work very closely related to certain types of occupation and thus provide very valuable data for guidance purposes. Although no school can or should exactly duplicate conditions in trade and industry, yet the similarities in operations and in skills are sufficient to give the student decided assistance in occupational choices. Further contributions of these subjects to guidance will be discussed under Exploratory and Tryout Courses.

5. *Course in Occupations.* The need for a definite study of occupations has resulted in the general introduction into our

junior high schools of the vocational civics course. This is variously placed. Often, it is the first semester of the ninth grade. The course outlined in the Boston school [4] is spread over grades 7, 8, and 9. There is no uniformity regarding its place in the junior high school. The plan used in Boston has much to commend it. Elimination of pupils occurs throughout the junior high school, and such a plan is better adapted to the needs of all pupils who drop out than if it were placed in any one of the grades. Grade 7 is a bit too early, grade 9 is too late, and grade 8 is a mere compromise. One of the chief obstacles in the way of the usefulness of the course in vocational civics is that it too often is made elective. The exigencies of college entrance requirements have often operated to restrict this to those who expect to take up commercial, agricultural, or industrial occupations. It is a course that is equally valuable for everyone and should be placed and so administered that everyone would be obliged to take it. This is a further argument for spreading it over the three years.

The purpose of this course and the materials used have both undergone considerable change within the past few years. This is due to the uniting of two forces or movements, each of which outlined work for the junior high school. One of these was the vocational or vocational guidance movement that stressed the necessity for giving definite information regarding occupations to pupils preparatory to the choice of occupations. The other was the community civics movement that stressed the importance of developing an understanding of important institutions through which society functions. The strictly vocational point of view resulted in courses with such titles as Occupations, Vocations, and Life Career Classes; these stressed the more or less detailed study of occupations. The discussions usually centered around the following topics:

1. Importance of the occupation.
2. Work done.
3. Income.
4. Preparation required.
5. Advantages and disadvantages.
6. General qualifications.

[4] BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Guidance–Educational and Vocational, A Tentative Plan for Group Counseling in the Intermediate Schools, *Board of Superintendents' Circular 2*, pp. 6–9, 1928–1929.

The study of each occupation followed the same outline; after one or two had been studied in this way, the work became quite uninteresting and tiresome, both to pupils and to teachers. It is difficult to arouse interest in a mass of details, especially among students who have no immediate intention of entering the occupation studied. To be sure, whenever a boy or girl is thinking seriously of entering such an occupation, such details are of absorbing interest, but it is doubtful whether this is the best method of approach to a general class study.

The community civics movements stressed institutions, especially those most intimately affecting the home and the school. It dealt with occupations but only in their social and civic aspects. Miss Clark has called attention to the need for uniting these two movements. She would take as the starting point the institutions rather than the occupations. She says: [5]

> When the course is conceived of from the angle of the work-world or economic world, the discussion centers around the many functioning institutions in the same manner as the newer political civics handles its material. The bank, cooperative store, or factory, for example, may be treated as institutions functioning in the economic order. And the workers, who actually carry on and cause the institutions to work, can be made the center of approach. From this point there is an easy transition to the facts about the worker. How did he get there? What training did he need? What attitudes must he have to further the undertaking? All pupils should study these institutions, but all do not need to study the details about every worker.

This does not meet the needs of those who are going to work at once, but such pupils need the personal help of the counselor in any case, and such detailed investigation and discussion of occupations may be taken up with the counselor either individually or in small groups. For the pupil who will not leave school soon, as Miss Clark suggests:

> . . . the specific facts would fade by the time he has need for them and, should he remember them, they would perhaps be out of date anyhow. [6]

[5] CLARK, FLORENCE E., The Use of Occupational Studies in the Classroom and in the Personal Interview, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine,* 7:294–301, April, 1929.

[6] *Ibid.,* p. 297.

Whether Miss Clark's views are correct or not, and they seem very reasonable, we must admit that we have not yet developed a satisfactory method of giving occupational information to students. Research studies regarding the amount of occupational information actually retained by pupils as a result of such courses do not as yet warrant the conclusion that they are much more valuable for this purpose than informal methods. Inadequate as are our present studies of occupations, they are some distance in advance of our ability to use the facts effectively. One of the greatest needs today is the devising of ways by which the occupational information we already have may be used to advantage by the teacher and counselor. Dr. Cleo Murtland stated this well in her introduction to the program on Occupational Studies: [7]

> As the list of studies mounts, attention has been directed to two distinct needs if studies are to be used: one, that occupational information must be presented to meet the needs of pupils of differing levels; the other, that teachers, counselors, and others who share the work of guidance and counseling need help in using occupational information effectively.

May Rogers Lane wisely contends that occupational studies should gather facts for the entire occupation, that occupational content should be a unit, that these should be in the form of monographs. The application of these facts to school problems, she says, is an entirely different matter. This calls for teachers' manuals and suggested outlines of application for teachers and pupils.[8] Miss Lane has written such a manual, which will prove to be very helpful.[9]

On the whole, the tendency is a wise one; it leaves the definite, detailed study of occupations to group or individual counseling and takes up only the larger social and economic questions in the class in vocational civics. A discussion of the larger occupational problems is useful for everyone; the detailed consideration of specific occupations may well await readiness of the individual

[7] Reported in *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 7:217, February, 1929.

[8] LANE, MAY ROGERS, Occupational Studies of 1927 and 1928, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 7:312–313, April, 1929.

[9] LANE, MAY ROGERS, "Manual to Accompany Vocations in Industry," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1929.

for occupational choice and this is an individual not a group matter.

A very good method for giving definite occupational information is to provide for it in the various classes most closely related to the occupation. For example, in the class in advertising, discuss the various things the advertiser does; in the course in secretarial work describe what different kinds of secretarial work there are; and in bookkeeping, business law, and office practice a similar thing may be done.

A plan that has been found especially helpful might be called "the workshop for occupational choice," or "a vocational information workshop." This consists of a room in the school set apart for the study and discussion of problems related to occupations and occupational choice. Here suitable reference material, bulletins, posters, pictures, charts, etc., are gathered together and catalogued on cards. Whenever a problem involving occupations arises in any class, pupils are referred to this workroom; when a problem of vocational choice comes up in counseling interviews or when a pupil feels the need of help in securing information about occupations, this is the place to go for help. Here students and teacher or counselor, or students alone, or parents, teacher, and pupils, may come to study and discuss occupational problems. Such a workshop could be provided by almost any school.[10]

A plan very similar to this is now in operation in the library of the Batavia High School. It is used especially for Occupations Week, but it could be a regular part of the program for the year.

6. *Investigations by Students.* Whether the definite study of occupations is taken up in the class as a whole or whether it is considered only in group counseling, there are certain helps that are generally used. One of these is investigations by individual members of the class. These may take the form of interviewing employers regarding the needs and qualifications of the worker, studying the wages of employees or the methods of organization of workers, the importance of the occupation, the general surroundings of the job, or any other phase of occupational study. We should distinguish carefully between this type of investigation by the students and the investigation of occupations by

---

[10] BABCOCK, CHESTER D., A Vocational Information Workshop in High School, *Occupations*, 182–183, December, 1941.

experts described in Chap. XIV. The distinction there made will bear repeating briefly. The investigation by experts is for the purpose of finding *facts* about occupations. These facts are to be collected and organized in such a way that counselors can use them in the guidance of students. The object is to obtain reliable facts. The purpose of the investigations by students is not primarily to discover new facts, although this may sometimes result, but to develop certain attitudes and habits and to secure certain experiences that will help them in their occupational choices. In other words, it is merely a teaching device. The counselor or teacher must know the facts, at least in the large, before allowing the students to investigate. If he does not know the facts, he cannot check the investigations, he cannot know whether the things the student finds are facts. We need both forms of investigation, but no good can come of confusing the purposes of one with the purposes of the other. The investigation by students is like that done in history classes when topics are assigned to students for investigation. No new facts of history are discovered, but the investigation is a very helpful device for the purposes of instruction.

7. *Visits to Factories and Shops.* Another device often used is that of visiting various industrial and commercial establishments. When well organized, this has proved to be very helpful. The best results are obtained by careful cooperation with the heads of these establishments. In this way the teacher may find what parts of the shop can be visited, what can be seen, and when the visits may be made. The teacher can give the superintendent or foreman a clear idea of what is wanted and, sometimes, even an outline of what would be helpful by way of explanation. Definite preparation of the class should precede the visit in order that they may know what to look for and that they may have a sufficient understanding of the operations to enable them to ask intelligent questions. After the visit, the results should be discussed in class conferences and certain important truths brought out clearly. Sometimes the conditions are such that the class as a whole cannot visit the shop but must be divided up into small sections.

The chief difficulties with this method are

1. That the time and expense involved in visits of whole classes are often so great as to make it impossible in all but a few cases.

2. There are usually only a few establishments that will cooperate with the schools in such visits. In some, the processes are secret, and in other the conditions of the shop are such as to make visits impracticable.

3. The dirt, noise, and confusion are so great as to be decidedly disturbing elements, often obscuring entirely the operations themselves and creating a lasting dislike in the students for the occupation.

8. *Use of Motion Pictures and the Radio.* Many of these objections are avoided by the use of motion pictures. The advantages of this device are: (1) they can be used at any time the class needs them and used over and over if necessary; (2) the time and expense are greatly reduced, for the occupation is brought to the class; (3) the pictures may be slowed up so as to show the actual operation; (4) the elements of dirt and noise, as well as of danger, are removed. There are also some disadvantages, such as (1) inability to appreciate all the conditions of the occupation due to removal of noise and dirt, (2) inability to secure enough films to show the necessary occupations, (3) the more or less dramatic emphasis. Heads of industrial establishments are chiefly interested in advertising their products, not in the showing off of their workers; accordingly, although it is comparatively easy to secure films showing industrial products and machinery, it is quite difficult to secure films showing workers at work. There are many films showing products but relatively few showing processes and still fewer showing what the workers really do and how they do it. There is at present, however, an ample supply of excellent films for all practical purposes. These can often be obtained for the mere cost of transportation. The variety and quality of both silent and sound films now available for school purposes are so great that nearly every school can make use of them. The best source of suggestions for the selection of films and for their use is the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education.

The radio is also very useful as an aid in securing information on occupations and in stimulating discussions. Helpful scripts are being produced in increasing numbers that are especially designed as aids to classes on occupations and to other methods used in vocational guidance. Slides and pictures are also very helpful although they lack the reality of the motion picture.

9. *Talks by Businessmen.* Another device sometimes employed is to bring men and women prominent in different kinds of vocations to the school for talks on interesting and important phases of their occupation. The presence of such persons in the school helps to focus attention upon the occupation. Sometimes such talks are very helpful, but it is difficult to secure just the right type of man or woman. Often, the efficient employer or superintendent is not a good speaker; sometimes such men take the opportunity to deliver an address, preach a sermon, or do something other than tell about their occupation. It is usually best to let the speaker know in advance just what you wish him to do and furnish him with an outline of the points that should be emphasized. The class should be prepared in advance for the talk, and the points raised by the speaker should be discussed later in order to make the most of the occasion.

The difficulties of using outside speakers are considerably reduced if the groups are small and composed only of those interested in the occupation. In Minneapolis, Miss Wright reports a very successful plan of this kind worked out in cooperation with the Kiwanis Club.[11] After finding the vocational interests of members of the senior class, they are grouped according to these interests and a request for speakers is sent to the vocational guidance committee of the Kiwanis Club. The speakers are very carefully selected and conferences are arranged. Before the conferences, the students are especially prepared by talks and readings. Since the conferences vary in size from eight to forty-five students, the talks are very informal and opportunity is given for questions. The speakers are usually coached, more or less, by the counselor regarding the points in which the students are most interested. The plan seems to work very well and has much to commend it.

10. *Use of Biographies.* The use of biographies has often been advocated, and many biographies contain rich material for conference and for individual investigation. Kitson[12] suggests a method of making such studies more effective. It is concerned

[11] WRIGHT, BARBARA H., A Method of Using the Group Conference as a Guidance Device, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 7:26–33, October, 1928.

[12] KITSON, HARRY D., Guidance a Major Problem of Secondary Schools, *University of Pennsylvania Bulletin*, 23(38):391, Sixteenth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

mainly with the steps the man or the woman took in arriving at the position he finally occupied in his vocation.

The Use of Biographies

Biography is a highly dramatic source of such information. During the past year I have been developing a method of using biography as an instrument of vocational guidance. I have prepared an outline which the pupil can follow, and after he has studied the lives of a few workers in an occupational field, he will have a pretty clear idea of the work he might do in that field and how he may prepare for it. The outline consists of a series of questions which the pupil answers by studying the biography. I shall illustrate with a presentation of the work of the journalist based on a study of the life of S. S. McClure.

Outline for the Study of a Biography

Study of the Journalist, S. S. McClure, as recorded in "My Autobiography" by S. S. McClure, Frederick A. Stokes Company, Philadelphia, 1914.

At what age did he decide to enter this occupation? *Twenty-five* (p. 150).

What was the most influential factor leading to this decision? *He was offered a job in this field* (p. 150).

What other occupations did he seriously consider? *None.*

In what other occupations did he engage before entering his final occupation? *Farmer* (pp. 44, 64), *teacher* (p. 133), *peddler* (pp. 102ff. and 128ff.).

At what age did he enter his permanent occupation? *Twenty-five* (p. 150).

What was his first job in this field? *Editor of house organ* (p. 148).

How did he get his job? *Asked for it* (p. 147).

How much money did he make per month in this job? *Not stated.*

How long did he remain at it? *Six months* (p. 161).

What was his second step on the ladder? *Business for himself (syndicate) at the age of twenty-seven* (pp. 166ff.).

How much money did he make here? *Nothing the first year; about the sixth year the business netted approximately* $4,000.

Make a vocational ladder showing:

	Age Earnings
a. Number of rungs on the ladder.	Magazine owner......... 35
b. Earnings at each step.	Syndicate owner......... 27
c. Length of time spent at each step.	Editor house organ....... 25
d. Age on attainment of each step.	

Social and Economic History

What was the nationality of his parents? *Irish (p. 1).*

Were they poor, rich, or in comfortable circumstances? *Poor.*

Occupation of father? *Carpenter.*

At what age did he (the subject of this biography) begin to support himself? *Eleven.*

At what age was he married? *Twenty-six (p. 26).*

Did his wife give any special assistance? *Care of office and assistant editor (p. 175).*

How many children? *Four (p. 121).*

At what age did he die? *Still living.*

Educational History

How many years did he spend in general education? *Twenty-one, with intermittent recesses taken in order to obtain funds.*

How old was he when he completed his general education? *Twenty-five.*

What was his favorite subject in school? *In elementary, arithmetic and history (p. 17), in college, Greek and mathematics (p. 68).*

At what age did he begin his technical education? *There was no school of journalism at that time.*

How far from home did he go for his advanced education? *200 miles.*

What was his customary academic standing in

    a. General education? *Third in college class.*

    b. Technical education?

Did he earn his own way through college? *Yes, entirely.*

Did he go in debt for his education? *No.*

This plan opens up many delightful and interesting possibilities. It is comparatively simple and there is abundant material in nearly every library. Of course, it is necessary to be careful in the interpretation of such material. The steps taken by a Lincoln in the course of his life cannot apply equally well to young men in this century; social, economic, and industrial conditions change, and the preparation considered essential in 1860 has been largely superseded. However, used with care, the biographical material is very suggestive and helpful.

11. *Pamphlets.* For the classroom teacher and the counselor, the most useful source of information regarding occupations is the series of occupational abstracts or guidance leaflets on occupations now published by governmental and private agencies. These utilize the information gathered by experts and present

them in a form that is helpful to teachers and to pupils in the secondary school. These give information on the character of the work done, the qualifications of the worker, the conditions on the job, the opportunities for advancement, etc. They also give practical advice regarding how to prepare for the job and how to succeed in it. They often are illustrated and use catchy captions such as "Are you planning to teach . . . ?" "Do you want to teach? Start training now." These are used in the course on occupations, as material for group discussions, or for individual study. There are so many of these on the market at present that great care should be taken in the selection of the pamphlets to make sure that they are accurate. Again, one of the best sources is the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education. This bureau itself issues guidance leaflets describing many types of occupations and has at hand reliable information regarding various leaflets now on the market. Several publishers issue monthly or quarterly pamphlets or leaflets that are designed to help teachers, counselors, and students in studying occupations. The abundance of material now being published by government agencies regarding different types of occupations in the armed forces will be found helpful.

III. Tryout and Exploratory Courses

1. *Scope of Tryout Courses.* Another phase of guidance in the secondary school is connected with tryout and exploratory courses. These have been described in Chap. VII. It was there pointed out that little opportunity exists in the first two years of the junior high school for separate tryout courses and that we must rely very largely upon the required subjects in the core curriculum for tryout and exploration. The fact was also emphasized that these required subjects, especially the general subjects in science, mathematics, language, and social studies, are rich in opportunities for tryout and exploration. In addition to these general subjects, there is further opportunity given in the electives offered. To be effective as tryout, such courses must be offered before the time of choice of occupation or of the curriculum leading to the occupation. Schools do not usually offer electives in the seventh grade but begin the electives by a limited offering in the eighth grade. Here a choice is usually given of

foreign language, junior business training, or further work in industrial arts. In the ninth grade, while preliminary choice of curriculum must be made, many other electives are offered, and it is still possible to change one's curriculum when he reaches the senior high school. But these furnish tryout and exploration mostly for further schoolwork. Although they give useful occupational information, they do not afford much opportunity for direct tryout in definite vocational lines. Many schools try to meet this need by offering short unit courses in various fields as a means of exploration. Pittsburgh and a number of other cities offer tryout courses of two kinds: (1) All boys who enter the seventh grade are given their shopwork in the "general shop."

In the same way, the general mathematics and general science aim to cover a wider field of subject matter in those respective sciences than was formerly done, so the general shop provides the boy with a taste of not merely one type of handwork, but five or six. Here will be found equipment for teaching printing, wood turning, wood benchwork, simple electrical wiring, sheet-metal work, and light machine work. Boys in these classes are kept on one kind of work about five weeks at a time and are then moved on to some different kind of work. By the time a boy has had four hours per week for a semester or longer both teacher and student have had a fair chance to find out whether the boy has any aptitude at all for shopwork, and if he has, in which kind he will probably do his best work.[12]

(2) Boys electing the technical course in the eighth and ninth grades are given a rotation of shops. Each boy is scheduled for one shop for four hours per week for ten weeks. At the close of this time, he is moved to another shop until he has had in each of the type shops an opportunity to try work which is more advanced in character than that which is offered in the general shop.

These two tryout courses give very valuable information for the counselor and helpful experience to the boys themselves; they illustrate nicely the impossibility of separating the various phases of guidance in actual practice. Each phase is distinct, both phases of guidance require both forms and both *at the same time*.

[12] PITTSBURGH PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Pittsburgh: Board of Public Education, *Vocational Guidance Bulletin*, 1922, pp. 29–31.

2. *Student Clubs and Activities.* In addition to the subjects outlined in the curriculum, the various clubs and student activities furnish an opportunity for tryout and exploration that is often very useful in occupational choice. The school paper, in both its editorial and its business aspects, enables students to test themselves and to find whether they have any real interest and ability in writing, in editorial work, or in managing the financial side of the paper. The music clubs and orchestra and glee club give real exploratory experiences for occupations involving musical ability and interest. Other clubs, such as the radio club, science club, art club, and camera club, also give a chance for exploration in a somewhat more unconventional atmosphere than do the regular studies. They also provide for a wider range of activities than the regular curriculum. Where the vocational tryout objective is included, the organization of these activities may be made much more useful and effective.

3. *Short-time Job Contacts.* Some schools are experimenting with plans by which the high-school students in the junior and senior years are given opportunities to obtain a close-up view of different occupations by spending a brief time either on the job or in close contact with it. In Chester, Pa., the men's and women's service clubs are cooperating with the high school in carrying out the plan. Students are asked to state their preferences for the occupations they wish to observe. Usually three choices are asked for from each student in order that no one occupation will be overburdened. The service clubs get the names of firms who are willing to cooperate and make the general arrangements for the visits. The school, working with the committee of the service clubs, formulates general procedures for the visit, including a clear statement of the purpose of the plan and definite points that should be kept in mind. On the day selected the students go, either singly or in small groups, as their choices have indicated, to the shop or plant or whatever occupation may be indicated and report to the particular person who is assigned for the day to this work. They spend the morning in visiting the different parts of the plant and in discussion with the guide. At noon they all assemble for lunch at a selected place and have a brief general conference. In the afternoon the visits to the plants are continued and in the evening the service clubs arrange a dinner for the students and the sponsors. At this

dinner there are short talks by different businessmen and responses by the students. During these visits and conferences, the students are asked to take notes and put down further questions that they wish answered. These notes and questions form the basis for group discussions and individual conferences with counselors. Some schools arrange for a period of a week or more for such job contacts, but this is not usually possible.

4. *Out-of-school Jobs.* Another source of tryout and exploration that has been previously mentioned is that of out-of-school jobs and vacation jobs. Not only can the work done by students around the home and in casual jobs be utilized to help the student understand himself, but the counselor can often provide such opportunities for the student. No school shop can exactly duplicate real shop conditions and shop atmosphere. When the boy tackles a real job, he secures real experience. This experience will show him what the trade or industry demands of its workers and will reveal interests and abilities.

There is a growing demand that real work experience be made an integral part of the school curriculum. Because of various difficulties and the usual inertia of school administration this demand has not as yet resulted in much progress. When such work experience becomes a normal part of the education of all youth, some of the difficulties incident to vocational information and vocational choice will be removed. To secure the maximum benefit, such out-of-school work should be carefully followed up and supervised; without such follow-up and supervision the more or less desultory vocational experience obtained in these jobs is often either wasted entirely or made positively injurious.

5. *Supervision of Tryout Activities.* In considering the value of tryout and exploratory work, we should bear in mind that such work is not in and of itself valuable; there is nothing inherent in it that makes it worth while. It must be made valuable and will bring in adequate returns only when carefully organized and supervised. Because a boy works on a delivery wagon, he does not necessarily receive experience in business that will help him; because a girl sells aluminum utensils from house to house, she does not necessarily get points of view that will help her decide what she wants to do. The results may be, and often are, purely neutral; a positive aversion to all kinds of

employment may even be produced. Just as we may be in the most wonderful historical surroundings and not be benefited by it unless their presence and significance are pointed out to us, so a boy or a girl may be in the midst of valuable occupational experiences and never realize it unless these experiences are pointed out and their significance revealed. Mere experience seldom helps; supervised, directed experience is essential if the greatest value is to result.

REFERENCES

1. BATEMAN, RICHARD M.: The Effect of Work Experience on Vocational Choice, *Occupations,* 27:453–456, April, 1948.

2. BILLINGS, MILDRED LINCOLN: "Group Methods of Studying Occupations," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1941. Contains valuable suggestions on (1) gathering and presenting occupational information to pupils, (2) correlating guidance functions, (3) planning courses and procedures, (4) utilizing school subjects, drama, and radio. The bibliography is one of the most valuable parts of the book.

3. BREWER, JOHN M., and EDWARD LANDY: "Occupations Today," rev. ed., Ginn & Company, Boston, 1949. Excellent materials on relationship of education to work, use of school studies, and cooperation in occupations.

4. COYLE, GRACE L.: "Group Work with American Youth," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948. Illustrations of types of group work as aids.

5. FORRESTER, GERTRUDE: "Occupational Pamphlets," The H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1948. An annotated bibliography of 3,000 occupational pamphlets.

6. FRYER, DOUGLAS: "Vocational Self Guidance," J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1925. Although recent research has made some of the conclusions inaccurate, the general point of view is still helpful.

7. LINGENFELTER, MARY R., and MARIE A. HANSON: "Vocations in Fiction, an Annotated Bibliography," American Library Association, Chicago, 1932. Although the books listed are much out of date, this bibliography will be suggestive of types of fiction that may be selected.

8. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. Chapters VIII to XII are especially helpful for the topics included in this chapter.

9. WILLIAMSON, E. G.: "Students and Occupations," Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1937. Discusses the psychological problems involved in making a vocational choice, the scope of occupations, and the general trends of employment.

The Science Research Associates pamphlets "Occupational Information Materials" and the "Life Adjustment Booklets" are very useful.

The following references at the end of Chap. XVIII will be found helpful: 2, 7, 8, 9, 12, 19, 20, and 21.

METHODS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS (*Continued*)

(CHOOSING AN OCCUPATION, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOW-UP)

I. CHOICE OF AN OCCUPATION

1. *Responsibility for Choice.* It may be well for us to discuss briefly how the choice of an occupation should be made. The point already emphasized many times should be repeated—the choice must not be made *for* the student by the *counselor.* It really should be made in a cooperative way by frequent conferences between parents, students, and counselor. It is the duty of the counselor to assist in ways that have already been described, but the responsibility for choice does not rest and cannot rest with the counselor; it must be borne by the student and by his parents.

2. *Important Elements.* In making this important decision, certain elements should be taken into consideration both by the counselor in his assistance and by the student in his choice. There are many lists of these elements now in print. Among the most important are

   a. Suitability for the occupation, involving ability, physical, and mental characteristics aptitude.

   b. Service to society.

   c. Interest in the occupation.

   d. Satisfaction in the work.

   e. Financial returns, immediate and future.

   f. Opportunity for employment.

   g. Opportunity for advancement.

   h. Health conditions.

   i. Social conditions.

This list differs in some respects from that given on page 278. Either form may be used; the chief difference is due to the difference in function of the two lists: the one given on pages 278

and 279 serves as an outline for the study of an occupation; the list here given stresses the elements to be taken into consideration in the choice of an occupation.

   a. Aptitude for the Occupation. It is obvious that first in importance is the ability of the individual to succeed. Does he have the intelligence, the specific abilities, the potential skills, the other characteristics (the aptitude) necessary for success? Included in this are the necessary education and training. But success is not a simple matter; there are also degrees of success. It might well be that one could wisely choose an occupation even though his chances of outstanding success were small. As a matter of fact there is no agreement on the meaning of success. It may mean permanence of employment, high salary, a position of prominence or responsibility, doing the job well, or job satisfaction. Usually the man who is looked upon by his fellows as a successful man is one who has risen above his job and who has been promoted to another job where he has more power or responsibility, more authority over others. This confusion in the meaning of success makes it difficult to determine aptitudes for different occupations. The data presented in Chap. VIII indicate the great complexity of aptitudes and the present inadequacy of methods now in use to determine fitness for a particular occupation. However, these tests are helpful if used in combination with other data and if they are taken to indicate aptitudes for several groups of occupations rather than a single one. Some of them also indicate aptitudes for certain operations or activities within an occupation. With clear understanding of the complexity of aptitudes and with due caution in interpreting the results of tests and tryout experience, we may roughly indicate the chances of success in certain large groups of occupations.

   b. Service to Society. Although ability to succeed may be regarded as of first importance, almost equally important is service to society. Social contribution is fundamental, and the joy that comes from consciousness of being of service is a higher joy than that coming from success as usually understood. But it should be clear that if we are to expect young people to choose occupations with reference to service, such choice should come after long training in the home and school that *emphasizes service.* If the child is trained to be selfish, to get his own way, and to think only of himself, we cannot expect him to choose an

occupation for service. His choice will surely be primarily for financial returns and advancement, with the added idea of an occupation that involves as little actual effort as possible.

c. Interest in the Occupation. One of the oldest and commonest methods used by counselors for beginning an interview is to ask the counselee what he would like to do as a lifework. This usually is an effective means of establishing rapport, but it is of very doubtful value as a method for the selection of an occupation. It may be well to review briefly some of the discussion on interests and interest inventories given previously. In Chap. IX, we found that interests, especially of young people, are by no means permanent and that present interests are dependent upon past experiences. One of the chief functions of the junior-high-school period is to utilize present interests to motivate further exploration and to widen the field of interests by new types of experience. Occupational choice based on present expressed interests is founded upon the exploded notion that one is born with certain interests that remain throughout life or that one soon acquires them in some mysterious way. Many young people have no clear definite vocational interests. When asked what they would like to do they feel compelled to say something and so express an interest that they do not feel. Even the more careful methods of determining interests used by Strong, Kuder, and others by no means reveal vocational interests that are permanent in young people below the age of twenty. The fairly high correlations found by Strong are based on adults whose occupational choice already has been made. Even among college students he found as high as 50 per cent who had changed their vocational interests during their college life. Again, as Strong so well shows, interests and abilities do not always go together. Many people are interested in activities far beyond their abilities for success; others are not interested in doing the things in which they have outstanding ability.

The term "occupational interest" is used with different meanings. It may mean interest in the occupation as a whole; it may mean pleasure in the activities of the occupation; or it may even mean satisfaction in the job if one already is engaged in such work. One may be said to have a real general interest in the job even though he does not know exactly what the activities required are. This is frequently true of those who choose nurs-

ing or medicine. This is often the "interest" expressed by a high-school student when asked what he would like to do in life. The Strong interest blank and several other inventories attempt to find interests in activities involved in various occupations. Interests in activities thus expressed are grouped into patterns which correspond to the activities of certain occupations or groups of occupations. This is, of course, a much more effective procedure. However, the method is still subject to the criticisms already given, that one cannot well have an interest in some activity in which he has had no experience. The Gentry inventory attempts to overcome this difficulty by including questions intended to reveal the knowledge and acquaintance of the individual with the activities under consideration. Further than this, the different interests expressed by an individual, even though they may correspond to the interests of successful people in a given occupation, may not add up to interest in the occupation or desire to enter it. The dominant interests of nurses are in activities related to people and to relief of their suffering. Many persons are interested and even find joy in such ministrations in general, but some of the menial and messy activities involved are so distasteful to them that the entire occupation becomes unpleasant and unattractive. Other people, emphasizing the service rendered, are willing to do the distasteful things in order to be of service; sometimes even the distasteful activities become interesting.

Another fallacy often inherent in occupational choice based on interest is that a feeling of interest must be present before the occupation is selected. It is undoubtedly true that when ability is present one does best those things in which he is interested, but engaging in the activity not infrequently brings interest. It is also true to a large extent that we can, if we will, develop an interest in an activity at first uninteresting; to this extent we are "masters of our souls."

As has already been pointed out, one function of the teacher and the counselor is to help the individual to become interested in activities and occupations that seem to be suitable for him. A new technique developed by L. J. O'Rourke for "creating interests" has much promise. It is briefly described thus by Kitson.[1]

[1] Kitson, Harry D., *Creating Vocational Interests*, *Occupations*, 20:567-571, May, 1942.

As a result of ten years of research and experimentation, a novel device has been developed which has been found useful in systematically arousing and developing interest in specific occupational tasks. Under a grant from the Payne Fund, L. J. O'Rourke, Chairman of the Board of Advisers of the Civics Research Institute of Washington, D.C., has developed a program of short work experiences which have been put to practical use during the past year and a half. Each of these experiences is occupational in nature; for example, in the electrical field, a youth may be asked to set up a two-way buzzer system or a model house-to-garage wiring scheme involving switches and pilot lights.

Several series of these projects have been developed among the following groups: (1) junior and senior high school, (2) elementary school, (3) boy's clubs, Y organizations, etc., (4) defense and apprenticeship training programs. One interesting part of the plan is the "before and after" checking of a list of various kinds of vocational activities. The individual is asked to check all the activities that he thinks he dislikes. The contrast between the ones he has checked before and those he has checked after the experiences is often startling. This technique is not a diagnostic instrument designed to discover what interest the individual now has, but an "interest creator."

In addition to their value as interest-creators these projects have further advantages: they enable the youth to discover if he has been mistaken in his vocational interest; they offer opportunity whereby he can acquire new skills; they orient him with respect to a number of fields and thus give him a wider base for making vocational choices.

Although there are many limitations and dangers in the use of interests as the sole basis for occupational choice, they are very helpful when considered in connection with other factors such as abilities and personality characteristics. Interest patterns combined with ability patterns and patterns of behavior often serve as effective bases for initial selection of occupational groups.

d. Job Satisfaction. Satisfaction on the job is sometimes advocated as a basis for occupations selection. This is sometimes confused with interest in the occupation. There are common elements in the two concepts, but job satisfaction can come only after one is actually on the job. The only way we can use

this as a basis for choice is to estimate the probability of such satisfaction. This can be done only roughly. We must remember that job satisfaction is not necessarily the same as pleasure in the activities involved; it may be satisfaction with the pay, the general surroundings, the social position, or all of these combined. Dissatisfaction may be due to lack of ability, capacity, or interest, or it may be due to an unrealistic attitude by the individual. He may have been expecting too much; in prospect, the job may have seemed highly desirable, but he finds it actually very commonplace and prosaic.

Vocational guidance has often seemed to take for granted that the majority of workers are dissatisfied with their work, that it is distasteful to them. Hoppock's investigation [2] casts some doubt upon this assumption. Apparently, satisfaction with one's work may be acquired; one may even come to like an occupation that was originally distasteful or for which one is unsuited. But we must admit that some types of occupation provide for most people very little possibility of enjoyment on the job. The earnings of such jobs are often higher than those of other types of job. What, then, is the worker to do? Let us in this connection remember that the occupation is only a part of the life of every individual. It is not all of it, even though some would have us believe it is. It may not even be the most important part of life. If we are to be faced with considerable increase in the number of automatic machines, with the consequent speeding up of production and a four-hour day and a five-day week as some predict, it may be that some man, or some woman, will and should deliberately choose an occupation that is purely mechanical, in which there is no joy for him, because by so doing he can earn enough money to support himself and his family and *spend the rest of the time in doing something that he does enjoy*—his avocation. The important thing is that *somewhere* in his life he shall experience joy in doing things, he shall have satisfaction in his activities. Not a few strong men, successful in their work and respected by all, have deliberately given up their occupation and gone to a remote place, taking their books with them. They have been content to make a bare living by trapping or gardening so that they could be free to read, medi-

[2] HOPPOCK, ROBERT, "Job Satisfaction," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1935.

tate, enjoy the things that to them really counted for most. Were they wise in their choice? Who shall say? The point to be emphasized here is merely this: that in choosing a lifework, the whole life of the individual should be taken into consideration. Adams, in "The Epic of America," voices the belief of a constantly increasing number of thoughtful men when he casts doubt upon the prevailing American philosophy of work and efficiency as basic for modern society.

e. Financial Returns. In our present society, financial security is of extreme importance and it is not only legitimate but wise for everyone to consider the possible financial returns in choosing an occupation. Too frequently this is the only or dominant reason for choice, and not infrequently choices made solely on this basis result in unhappiness and even disaster. Young people, especially, are often misled by the glitter of immediate financial returns when they should take the far view and find what the probability of salary ten or twenty years from now will be. It is often much better to choose an occupation that brings in low returns at first, provided that there are opportunities for large returns in the future.

f. Other Considerations. The other reasons for choice of occupation are also very important. It is usually unwise to choose an occupation when the opportunity of employment is very small. Other factors may enter in even here. Owing to family connections, special influences, or exceptional ability the choice of an occupation that has few opportunities may be a wise one. Opportunity for advancement is a factor of great importance. It is the "long look" that should govern, not the immediate job. Health and general social conditions all may become dominant factors in choice; they should each be considered for they condition not only success but general satisfaction and happiness.

3. *Time of Choice.* The problem of when the choice of occupation should be made is a perplexing one. Some maintain that all children should decide before they enter high school; others think the decision should be made before they enter college; and most people agree that it should come before they finish college. A moment's consideration will clearly show that no absolute rule can be made. Obviously, choices should usually be made before the child leaves school. But children leave school at very different times. At least two-thirds never complete high school,

and probably not more than ten out of 100 of those who complete high school ever finish college. The time of choice, then, in the sense of choice of a specific occupation, must vary, as has been indicated previously. There may well be an optimum time for choice for each individual, determined by a kind of readiness for choice. Some children should choose an occupation by the time they are in the eighth grade; others can safely delay it until they are well along in their college course. Present conditions indicate that the choice may wisely be deferred at least until the end of the junior high school. The best advice to give is not to rush the choice; go slow, consider carefully, watch, and wait. As a matter of fact, in most cases the choice is made in a progressive way by progressive elimination. If a child drops out of school before high school is completed, his choice is restricted to those occupations for which high-school and college courses are not necessary. He is at once ruled out of the professions. Again, if he does not go to college, the higher professions are closed to him. Theoretically, the farther a person goes in school, the more occupations are open to him, but actually the farther he goes, the more restricted the choice usually is. That is, the boy who goes to college points toward the higher professions or certain forms of business. His choice is progressively restricted so that when he completes college the choice is not so difficult as it might seem.

4. *Provision for Choice and Rechoice.* Provision should always be made in school for choice and rechoice. The first choices of the student are not necessarily final. Investigations differ in their findings regarding the permanency of vocational interests of children. All studies agree, however, that there are many changes in choice during the years of the secondary school. Early choices should be regarded by the counselor as purely provisional. They should be utilized always in the study of occupations and in the study of the student who has made the choice. They provide some of the best types of motivation for study. Not all students should be urged to select an occupation while in high school; as has already been pointed out, remaining in school for further study almost automatically restricts the choice. However, we need educated men and women in all lines of occupations; especially do we need intelligent leaders in industry, and college-trained men should consider carefully the

possibilities of leadership in industrial work. The opportunities in *all* lines of work should be clearly revealed to students in high school and college. We do not wish to make any distinction in honor or value among occupations; all should be considered equally worthy. It is very apparent that different occupations or different jobs in the same occupation call for varying degrees of intelligence and general ability. Even though a highly intellectual person may at times get satisfaction in a purely repetitive, "low-grade," task, a distinct social waste and individual unhappiness, as well, usually result when a man with a high degree of intelligence and large general ability spends his energies in a job or an occupation that does not utilize this intelligence and ability. When possible, people should select occupations, or jobs in occupations, that call for their highest ability, and provision must be made for them to secure work in such occupations. Since success in school and college *is* indicative of superior intelligence and, perhaps, high general ability, the college-trained men and women should go into occupations or jobs that can utilize these abilities. These are what are called the "higher" occupations or managerial positions in industrial occupations. On this account, continuance in school itself is a method of restricting the choice of occupation.

5. *Methods of Occupational Choice.* In the preceding discussion we have considered the factors that should form the basis for choice of occupation by the individual; we have also indicated ways in which the school may assist the individual in a study of these factors. It may be helpful to consider briefly some specific ways of helping the individual to make a decision. Attention should again be called to some of the points already made: (1) pupils should not be rushed into making a decision; (2) the time for making a decision varies with different individuals; (3) the first decision should not be considered final; (4) guidance with relation to occupational choice should be considered as a matter covering several years; it is not usually something that comes suddenly or at one single moment; (5) for many, the choice is not for a *life* work, but for a more or less temporary job, which may change several times during the life of the worker; (6) the occupation chosen should be considered not as a thing in itself, but as part of the total life of the individual.

From time to time many specific devices have been advocated by means of which occupations might be selected; none of these has been found completely satisfactory. It is probably true that no single method will ever be found satisfactory for everyone. Choices based on physiognomy, phrenology, astrology, and other "ologies" have been found to be unscientific and untrustworthy. Methods based on intelligence scores have been advocated by Fryer and others and largely discarded as ineffective. The matter is not a simple one, but very complex and complicated. Strong suggests that choices be made on the basis of the relationship between abilities and interests each of which is viewed from the standpoint of groups of occupations rather than as single occupations or jobs. When abilities and interests coincide with regard to an occupational group, then choices of particular occupations or jobs within the group may be based upon other factors such as service, remuneration, chances of advancement, opportunities for employment, etc. The Occupation Analysis Section of the Bureau of Employment Security has organized occupations in job families or constellations on the basis of similarity of work involved or basic skills and abilities required. If this classification proves to be valid it will broaden the field of selection and also of the basic training necessary. It will help the individual in readjustment to a new job within the particular constellation and aid the employer in recruiting workers for jobs that have similar requirements. Brewer has developed a plan which he calls "a simplification of vocational choice." Ruling out the "advanced occupations" open only to experienced workers, and the unskilled occupations, which persons seldom choose of their own free will, he had left the desirable "initial occupations." Then, omitting the occupations containing but few opportunities, he had left about 85 occupations for men and 35 for women. These he next classified vertically into three levels, professional, skilled, and semiskilled, and horizontally into four groups, after the intercorrelations of interest scores resulting from the researches of Strong. Brewer names these four groups as follows: (1) mechanical and scientific, (2) systematic, (3) competitive, and (4) humane. He contends that appropriate guidance, especially through exploratory and tryout experiences, can help a young person to discover his group, his

level, and his occupation.[3] This method has many things to commend it and is now being used successfully by many counselors. It has several limitations that should be noted. Any device of this kind, if used mechanically, is almost certain to be misleading but, if used under the guidance of a competent counselor, it should prove to be very helpful in guiding the thinking of the pupil. It has the deficiencies of the instruments on which it is based: the Strong Interest Blank and the methods of analysis of the abilities and skills necessary for each type of occupation and each level of skill.

6. *Growing into an Occupation.*   We cannot too strongly emphasize the fact that choice of an occupation is not a simple matter; it involves many variable factors; it is not usually done all at once and thus settled forever after. Not only should there be provision for choice and rechoice, there should be a definite plan of progress in such choices and through them. This idea is well expressed by Seibert[4] as "growing into an occupation." "The youth makes tentative choices, modifies them as he goes along, works hard at whatever he does, is helpful and cooperative, is awake to all possible developments, and gradually grows into his eventual place in life, however different it may be from the tentative choice that he made in the beginning." The original choice should be made on the best evidence available, taking into consideration aptitudes, interests, general suitability for the occupation, returns, opportunities, etc. The first job should, when possible, be in line with the tentative choice but it may be quite unrelated to it. Whatever his first job may be, the young worker should utilize every opportunity to learn all he can about it and also about other jobs. As far as possible, he should adjust himself to the job he has and study ways of improving his work. He should be constantly alert and should never stop growing. His experiences will enable him to learn more about his own abilities and interests, his points of strength and weakness. He will then be ready for new opportunities and responsibilities when they come, whether they are in the job he now has or in other occupations.

[3] Brewer, John M., and Edward Landy, "Occupations Today," rev. ed., Ginn & Company, Boston, 1949.

[4] Seibert, Earl W., Growing into an Occupation, *School Review*, 50: 644–650, November, 1942.

II. PLACEMENT

1. *Overemphasis upon Placement.* When the guidance movement started, it was thought of as concerned mostly with the placement of workers. The slogan was, "Prevent the square peg from getting into the round hole." "Help the square pegs to get into the square holes." That is, the chief aim of vocational guidance was to steer people into jobs where they could do their best work. For a time there seemed to be real danger that all the time and money would be spent upon the placement of students, finding jobs for them, rather than upon the more fundamental parts of guidance. This was a need that had a direct and immediate appeal to businessmen, and money could more readily be obtained for this than for the other part of the guidance program, where the results were not so immediate. It was, however, emphasizing what should be considered as the final results rather than the more important preparation. This danger has largely passed, and we no longer need to fear overemphasis upon this phase of the work. Some writers give the impression that placement (job getting) is not an educational function and think that if the work of guidance is well done the job getting will take care of itself; parents and children will be able to secure jobs satisfactorily.

2. *Placement Essential in Guidance.* This view has much to support it, but it is fundamentally unsound, especially when we remember that education is lifelong and concerned as much with how a person uses his abilities as how he acquires them; with adjustments to activities, jobs, etc., as well as with the development of the skills necessary for success. Moreover, vocational guidance cannot be efficiently administered without the information to be gained by placement and without the contacts with employers that can be secured only in this way. Placement involves both preparation of the student for securing a position and assistance in getting the job. It no more takes away the initiative of the individual in getting jobs than guidance in the selection of a college takes away the initiative of student and parents in getting into a college. Both are sometimes administered so that initiative is taken away; but it is not necessarily so, and when done in this way it violates the underlying principle of guidance so often stated—that guidance should help the student to solve his own problems and should aim to make him

independent of assistance. The term "placement" too often indicates a mechanical process in which the individual is entirely passive. The guidance function in placement is *helping* the *individual* to get a job.

3. *Placement a Public Responsibility.* Experience has shown that placement is best administered when the agency doing this work is a public agency. Private placement bureaus often do a real service but are and must be run for money, and too often they exploit the candidate for the financial returns to the agency. They are interested in the money that comes from placements. Public agencies are free from that temptation. They are in a position to render the best service both to the individual and to the employer. Ordinarily, it is more important to get the right job than to get a job. The school is in a position of special importance and has a special responsibility for placement because it is interested in the welfare and the development of the individual. No other agency feels this responsibility so keenly as does the school. In addition to this, the school has had the individual for many years and knows more about him than does any other agency. It is thus in a position to give the employer intimate and exact information about the student and to determine what type of occupation is best suited to the student himself. We must, then, accept placement as one of the functions of the school. It may not be entirely the obligation of the school, but the school should certainly share in the work. A central placement service for an entire city is, beyond doubt, very essential, but there should be a branch office or a placement representative in each school. Placement work far removed from contact with individual students and with teachers who know the students can never be effective; it is bound to be more or less mechanical; conceived of as such a mechanical process, it is not a function that can be called "educational."

4. *Contacts with Employers.* The first job of schools in preparing for placement is securing contacts with employers so that they will keep the school informed about their needs, about vacancies as soon as they occur. This means not only establishing avenues of information but securing the sympathetic cooperation of employers. Confidence in the judgment of the placement officer is, hence, one of the essentials. For this reason, placement officers in school make efforts to establish personal contacts

with employers, and schools should provide for continuity of service of placement officers.

Because of racial or other prejudices it is difficult for some young people to find the job for which their ability and interest qualify them. Counselors and placement officers have often been able to overcome this difficulty by personal contact with employers through which a limited number of Negroes or members of other minority groups have been given employment for which they are qualified. This tactful and somewhat experimental approach has often resulted in the removal or the decrease of the prejudice and has secured wider opportunities for others. In this way fair employment practices have been employed in many industries and large gains have resulted.

5. *Assistance in Securing a Job.* The next step in the process is to assist the student in his search for a job and in his application for the job. Nearly all the textbooks used in the vocational civics classes, or classes on occupations, have excellent material on this point. Miss Edith J. Veitch [5] has brought together some valuable suggestions under the headings:

1. Personal appearance.
2. Favorable impressions.
3. Unfavorable impressions.
4. How to fill out an application blank.

Many other suggestions are given in books and pamphlets. The helps compiled by the Committee on Guidance of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals [6] show the general character of the suggestions and are given below.

Before You Leave	When You Arrive
home to interview a prospective employer, determine to succeed in getting the position. Remember to:	at the place where you intend to apply for a position, it will be to your advantage if you remember to:
Make yourself clean and tidy. Comb your hair.	Glance at your personal appearance before entering.

[5] Veitch, Edith J., *Applying for a Position*, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 7:79–82, November, 1928.

[6] National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Committee on Guidance, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, *Bulletin* 19:31, January, 1928.

Before You Leave	When You Arrive
Shave.	Leave your cigarette outside.
Clean your teeth.	Kill any tobacco odor on your breath.
Manicure your nails.	
Shine your shoes.	Remove any candy or gum from your mouth.
Wear a clean shirt and collar.	
Press and brush your clothes.	Remove your hat or cap on entering.
Replace all missing buttons.	
Remove gaudy pins and advertising buttons.	Ask only for the person you are to interview.
Wear a hat or cap that goes well with your suit.	Remain outside "Private Office" until told to enter.
Take any letters of recommendation you may have.	Refrain from interrupting a conversation.
Carry a clean handkerchief.	Introduce yourself, state your reasons for calling, and present card of introduction.
Carry money for carfare and lunch.	
Leave early enough to keep your appointment on time.	Remain standing until invited to be seated.
The testimony of several young men has shown that many prospective positions are forfeited through failure to remember these important details.	Sit comfortably in your chair.
	Do not slouch.
	Be willing to take a test to show your ability.
	Be courteous all the time.
	Show willingness to return for a second interview.
	Let the employer do most of the talking.
	Information from employers shows that the young men who are hired and succeed are the ones who remember these pointers all the time.

The suggestions given by the Guidance Committee and by Miss Veitch are used in vocational civics classes, in home-room conferences, and in personal conferences with individual students. Some schools dramatize the situation of seeking a job in such a way that the various points brought out in the suggestions are clearly shown and the necessity for such things as dress and good manners emphasized.

These suggestions are all good, but more than good manners is necessary in getting a job. The applicant must have something

to offer. Few people get jobs who answer the question "What can you do?" by saying, "Anything." To the employer "anything" means "nothing." Before applying for a position the applicant should find what the employer wants and be able to sell himself for the service wanted by the employer. Not only do the dress and manners of the applicant count, but also his general bearing. Walter Pitkin gives some good advice when he says:

Enter a man's office, quivering, flushing, stammering. He accepts you at face value. How else could he? You fairly shout, "I'm a yellow dog. Want a yellow dog today, mister?"

Are you an architect? Then don't enter like a garbage collector. Are you a good shoe clerk? Don't behave like a barroom scrubwoman. Have the courage of your vocation. Look as you are. Speak as you are. Don't drag yourself down to the level of your lowest fear.

No employer wants a worker who cannot always measure up to the best that's in him. You wouldn't if you were an employer; for you'd be cheating yourself.

Beware of the pleasant fraud of trying to live beyond yourself and above yourself. I warn women here more than men; for this is a favorite feminine humbug. It may land a job, but it never holds it for long. . . .

Put these first two rules together. Never be meek; never bluff. Never shrink; never pose. The truth will land you the best job.[7]

The written application is very important. Research studies reveal a general ignorance regarding the proper form of such a letter. Much depends upon this initial contact. The school can give very definite help here. Mrs. E. G. MacGibbon devotes a considerable part of her excellent book, "Fitting Yourself for Business: What the Employer Wants beyond Skills," [8] to suggestions relating to preparing for the interview and to writing the letter of application. The photograph that usually is required as a part of the application is also important. Good advice regarding this is given in MacDougall's "Techniques of Teacher Self-placement." [9]

[7] PITKIN, WALTER B., How to Find a Job, Liberty, 17:53, May, 1940. (Used by permission of the author.)

[8] McGIBBON, E. G., "Fitting Yourself for Business: What the Employer Wants beyond Skills," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941.

[9] MacDOUGALL, WILLIAM A., "Techniques of Teacher Self-placement," Holt Printing Company, Grand Forks, N.D., 1935.

The bulletin board is very useful in emphasizing points that should be kept in mind and in calling attention to important matters of a more general nature. Striking passages from a story are copied, or a stanza from a poem that carries a definite message.

6. *Making Good on the Job.* The school's responsibility does not end when the job is secured. Even before it is secured much help can be given toward ensuring success on the job. Some of the general points helpful in attaining success on the job are often stated as follows: (1) first-day impressions are extremely important; (2) dress suitably; (3) pay close attention to what is told about employer policies and practices; (4) mistakes are inevitable but don't make the same mistake twice, keep learning; (5) get interested in the job, feel that you belong to it; (6) be careful what you say; (7) be on the alert for ways of improving methods; (8) every employer is seeking initiative, fresh ideas, and ability, but learn how to make suggestions tactfully; (9) work hard, don't be an eight-hour-day man. Some of these are expressed vividly in Schwab's Ten Commandments of Success.

TEN COMMANDMENTS OF SUCCESS

CHARLES M. SCHWAB

1. *Work hard.* Hard work is the best investment a man can make.

2. *Study hard.* Knowledge enables a man to work more intelligently and effectively.

3. *Have initiative.* Ruts often deepen into graves.

4. *Love your work.* Then you will find pleasure in mastering it.

5. *Be exact.* Slipshod methods bring slipshod results.

6. *Have the spirit of conquest.* Thus you can successfully battle and overcome difficulties.

7. *Cultivate personality.* Personality is to the man what perfume is to the flower.

8. *Help and share with others.* The real test of business greatness lies in giving opportunities to others.

9. *Be democratic.* Unless you feel right toward your fellow men, you can never be a successful leader of men.

10. *In all things do your best.* The man who has done his best has done everything. The man who has done less than his best has done nothing.

7. *Placement Offices.* Nearly every city of any size has some form of placement work. Sometimes this is unorganized, being conducted mostly in separate schools, and sometimes highly organized in a central placement service. It is, however, recognized as an obligation which rests upon the school and which should not be left to commercial agencies.

III. Follow-up and Employment Supervision

1. *Importance of Follow-up.* Follow-up and employment supervision are in many respects more important than mere placement. There are many problems that do not arise until the worker is actually on the job, and some of these are extremely difficult for the individual to solve without assistance. Many firms have personnel departments that definitely assist in the adjustments most necessary for the new worker. Some of these departments are very efficient and take a real interest in the worker. Many are run almost entirely from the standpoint of getting the most out of the worker, without regard to his own individual interests or needs. Here, again, is shown the advantage the school has in the follow-up work because it is concerned chiefly with the worker and with his needs and interests and not merely with getting the most work done. Many firms do nothing to help the young worker; he succeeds or fails by his own unaided efforts. When he fails, he is discharged and must get another job.

The placement and follow-up agency of the school attempts not only to find a suitable job for the boy, but to help him in getting adjusted to it and to aid him in securing advancement in it. It also tries to help the boy get the most training possible out of temporary or juvenile occupations and to provide for continuity of growth from job to job so that the progress from one job to another is continually toward a better occupation.

2. *Difficulty of Follow-up.* This is the part of the guidance program that is most difficult to finance and to administer. It takes an enormous amount of time and considerable money to follow up those who have left school and gone into occupations. It is so easy to lose sight of the individual; often he does not want to be followed up and frequently employers resent such attempts as unwarranted interference with their business. In spite of these handicaps, the work of following up students after they

have left school is steadily progressing. Several school systems make periodic follow-up studies of graduates and dropouts. These are helpful for improvements in curriculum and in guidance practice for those still in school, but they do not appreciably affect those who have left school.

3. *Boston Plan.* Probably Boston has the most efficient system of follow-up of any large city. All young persons who are placed by the Vocational Guidance Department are followed up by means of visits to employers and through the evening office hour to which the registrants are invited for interview. In addition to this, special follow-up studies are made.

. . . each year from six to nine months after graduation the department endeavors to get in touch with each graduate registered by sending out letters and questionnaires, by telephone calls, and by home visits. From the data accumulated a report is made up and sent to each school principal, giving him detailed information on each graduate, including the name of the school or college which the pupil is attending, the names of employers who have employed him, the nature of the occupations engaged in, and the wages or salaries received. Summaries are made up showing also the proportion of graduates of each school who are attending colleges and other schools and the proportion who are at work, taking evening-school courses, etc. . . .

Records of registrants are filed alphabetically by the school last attended and in the case of high-school students are subdivided by the year of graduation or withdrawal. The kind of work desired is indicated on the registration card by fastening clips to the card in one or more of ten spaces, the clips being of different colors to indicate whether the registrant is at school, is employed, desires change of work, etc. An alphabetical index of active and closed cases is kept, showing the date of registration and the school last attended. Pertinent information about any individual received in the course of follow-up work is entered on the personal record card of the registrant. Cards recording the results of investigation of employing firms are classified according to the occupational classification used by the United States Census. Employers' "orders" are filed alphabetically by months. There is also a file, arranged alphabetically by firms, of "work records," which provide for the name of each young person known to be employed by the firm, whether placement has been made by the vocational guidance department or by some other agency, the date of placement, the name of the placing agency, the wage, the date of leaving, and remarks. A case is closed only when a young

ington, D.C., 1940. This pamphlet should be in every school library. It is full of useful information and helpful suggestions for those who are planning to go to college.

10. HOPPOCK, ROBERT: "Group Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Methods of guidance in the choice of an occupation.

11. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER: "How to Find the Right Vocation," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1938. Discusses the problems of finding the right vocation, of getting interested and becoming proficient in it, and of getting ahead by careful and systematic planning.

12. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER, and MARY REBECCA LINGENFELTER: "Vocations for Boys," Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1942. A standard reference. Contains very helpful information for boys, presented in a fresh and interesting way.

13. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER, and MARY REBECCA LINGENFELTER: "Vocations for Girls," Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1939. A standard vocational reference for girls.

14. McGIBBON, E. G.: "Fitting Yourself for Business: What the Employer Wants beyond Skills," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. This book is full of helpful and interesting suggestions regarding choice of occupation, getting a job, and getting ahead in the job.

15. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. Chapters XIV, XV, and XVI are especially important.

16. RUCH, FLOYD L., GORDON N. MACKENZIE, and MARGARET McCLEAN: "People Are Important," Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, 1941. Chapter VI contains some very valuable suggestions regarding the choice of an occupation, getting a job, and getting along in the job.

17. SUPER, DONALD E.: "The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. Chapter 9, "The Choice of an Occupation," gives many useful suggestions regarding methods of occupational choice.

18. SUPER, DONALD E.: "Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Deals with measures for predicting vocational success or finding promise of success.

METHODS OF GUIDANCE AND STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

I. Scope and Objectives of College Guidance

1. College Guidance vs. Personnel Work. Much of the organized student personnel service in colleges and universities is performed by or is under the direction of the personnel departments. These are being organized very rapidly, especially in the larger institutions, and are performing a very valuable service. The discussion in Chap. III of personnel work and guidance should be kept in mind in this discussion. Personnel work is a broader term; the personnel worker does many things that cannot be classed specifically under guidance though they may be very useful for guidance or even essential to it. The largest part of the time of the personnel worker is, however, given to the guidance of students. On the other hand, many guidance functions are performed by instructors and administrators who are not classed as personnel workers.

So many excellent books have recently appeared dealing entirely with college personnel work that it does not seem necessary to treat the topic very extensively in this book, which is designed to emphasize guidance in elementary schools and secondary schools. For this reason, the discussion in this chapter will deal with the functions of such work and emphasize guidance activities that deal with the transition from secondary school to college and the adjustment of the new student to college.

2. Aims of College Guidance and Personnel Work. The specific aims of guidance on the college level are as follows:

1. To assist the student to adjust himself to the conditions of work in the new institution.

2. To help him in the many adjustments in ways of living and in general social relationships incident upon leaving home and upon entrance to the life of the college.

3. To help him budget his time and his financial resources.

4. To assist him in the development of worthy goals suitable to his needs and abilities.

5. To assist him in making plans for the attainment of these goals.

6. To assist him to get a clear idea of the various curricular offerings and the purpose of each.

7. To help him in studying occupational opportunities, qualifications, and requirements.

8. To assist him in studying, analyzing, and appraising his personal assets and liabilities.

9. To help him choose wisely among the athletic, literary, and social activities represented in the college.

10. To assist him, if necessary, in securing part-time employment or vacation jobs by which he can earn needed money.

II. METHODS OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN COLLEGE

1. *Joint Responsibility of High School and College.* The same general principle of joint responsibility as that described in connection with the entrance into the senior high school applies on entrance to college. The success of students in college is a responsibility both of the secondary school and of the college. The high school concentrates its energies upon the proper choice of further education and upon the particular institution finally chosen; it gives such help as it may in preparation for entrance to the college; it sends to the college a carefully organized record containing the items most important for the college to know. After this the major responsibility rests upon the college. Many secondary schools go one step beyond this and follow up their graduates, at least for the year, in order to give them all the help possible. As a part of this plan, colleges are now generally sending back to the secondary school a report of the work of the student for the first term and often for the entire year. These are very valuable to the secondary school, not only in revision of its standards, when necessary, but in providing the means for assisting the student in the perilous first year of college.

2. *Freshman Week.* Colleges are awakening to the necessity for more careful supervision and assistance to the incoming student. They realize by sad experience that young men and women thrown on their own responsibility for the first time, away from the restraining influence of parents and high-school teachers, need guidance and help not only in choosing courses but in personal adjustment to their environment. Accordingly,

many institutions have inaugurated a program for the incoming student. This usually consists of several days of intensive work before the college opens. It is called "Freshman Week" or "Freshman Days." One of the first institutions to begin this practice was the University of Maine. The original program used in 1924, now considerably shortened and modified, provided for a full week's program and consisted of inspection of the buildings and campus, lectures, tests and classifying examinations, and entertainment. The outline of activities as listed is given in full. These activities are in the charge of different members of the faculty and are very helpful.

I. Lectures

Subjects

1. Taking notes and examinations.
2. Use of library.
3. Use of books.
4. College duties and responsibilities.
5. The colleges.
6. College students, day's work and college customs.
7. Cultural reading.
8. Social conduct.
9. Current university problems and honor societies.
10. Hygiene and physical training.
11. Higher obligations of life.

II. Exercises, Tests, Etc.

Number of Periods	
4	Chapel.
5	Individual photographs.
8	Recreation.
2	Physical examination.
2	Campus inspection.
1	Practice in use of books.
2	Practice in use of library.
2	Psychological or scholastic aptitude tests.
2	Mathematics tests.
4	Exercises in English.
1	Chemistry test or lecture.
4	Field day.
——	
37	

III. Evening Program

Date	Activity
Tuesday	General welcome to Freshmen
Wednesday	Motion picture at Orono
Thursday	Athletic rally and songs
Friday	Stunt night
Saturday	Dance and games
Sunday	Vespers
Monday	Organization of class

Similar in general purposes is the three weeks' course in the techniques of study given by the University of Buffalo to all entering freshmen who have not done well in high school, but who wish to take a college course.[1] The various aspects of the course that were considered by the students to be most helpful are given in the order of their value.

1. Practice in taking notes from lectures.
2. Writing English themes, with conferences.
3. Lectures on purpose, habits, memory, and attentiveness.
4. Drill in rapid reading with comprehension tests.
5. Training in assimilating the contents of books.
6. Partial review of intermediate algebra.
7. Training in the use of the library.
8. Oral reports on outside reading.
9. Experiments in memorizing lists of foreign words.
10. Drill in taking notes from difficult and abstract mimeographed excerpts from textbooks.

The results of this three weeks' course are reported to be very satisfactory, and students have been able to adjust themselves to college life and requirements much more quickly than formerly.

One of the most effective variations of this general plan is the one that was organized by the Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis, Ore. The Educational Exposition, as it was called, was initiated as an organized institution for vocational guidance by Registrar E. B. Lemon in 1923. It developed to a point where it was one of the outstanding conferences in that section of the country. In 1931, over 700 boys and girls representing nearly all the secondary schools in Oregon attended the two-day confer-

[1] Jones, Edward S., The Preliminary Course on "How to Study" for Freshmen Entering College, *School and Society*, 29:702–705, June 1, 1929.

ence. These students were sent as delegates from the various schools and were entertained by the college. The purpose and methods are well described in the *Oregon State Monthly* for February, 1931.

The Education Exposition stimulates interest and understanding of vocational guidance by four chief methods:

1. The exhibits and demonstrations, prepared and operated by students of the schools of the college with a view to showing some of the different types of training offered at this institution. The great majority of these exhibits are highly informing. To the serious-minded they give a definite picture of the work presented.

2. Through general convocations and conferences of all delegates, addressed by the visiting vocational guidance specialists. The purpose of these gatherings is to present the general principles of guidance and to inspire students with a spirit of serious self-analysis and thought regarding their educational and vocational careers.

The speakers are always men and women of broad scholarship and wide educational outlook. They are not merely specialists in vocational guidance technique but educators in the largest sense. Hence, they afford all students an unbiased and thoroughly constructive message. Regardless of whether or not the listener plans to go to college, therefore, or of what type of college he may have in mind to enter if he looks forward to a college career, the message he receives is equally valuable to him.

3. The separate daily conferences for boys and for girls, affording opportunity for more intimate counseling by visiting specialists, members of the college faculty, and high-school delegates, both students and faculty. Questions are freely asked and answered, and discussion, while kept strictly to the point, is open and general. This is usually the livest and most valuable element of the Educational Exposition.

4. Conferences for faculty people and student advisers, where college and high-school teachers meet together with a view to such mutual understanding that the expositions from year to year shall meet the real needs of students and carry a vital and thoroughly constructive message.

Other features of the conference include athletic contests, debates, social entertainments, conferences with deans of schools and heads of departments, administration of tests by guidance experts, and exhibits of vocational guidance literature and tests. The effort is to give them a glimpse of college life, to show them

what the work of the different departments is and what occupations they lead to, and to stimulate them to think carefully about their future educational and vocational plans. By no means all who attend the exposition enter the state college; it is considered as a service to young people and not simply as a feeder for the state college.

Other institutions, especially engineering schools, have inaugurated similar programs on a smaller scale, usually limiting them to one day only.

3. *Personnel Departments.* In addition to this preliminary work, the personnel departments organized in many colleges are for the special purpose of assisting the individual student in his adjustment and in preventing failures. These departments make use of all sorts of tests—intelligence, achievement, aptitude, personality, interest, etc.—and the information regarding scholastic standing, personal characteristics, aptitudes, and general interests contained in the blanks sent by the secondary school is utilized, and the records of the student in college are constantly referred to. Personnel directors arrange personal conferences with students who are in trouble of any kind, assist in improving study habits, and give very useful help of all kinds. Often "How to Study" courses and "Orientation" courses are organized with the purpose of assisting the student in his adjustments. In the various ways described here, the new student is assisted to make the adjustments necessary in the first year of college work. The results of this form of guidance are very satisfactory. The enormous elimination that formerly took place in the freshman year has been greatly reduced, and many handicaps that prevented first-year students from getting a good start have been removed.

III. METHODS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN COLLEGE

1. *Attitude of Liberal Arts Colleges.* Colleges and universities have done little in an organized way to assist their students in their vocational choices. Professional schools, such as schools of education, teachers colleges, law schools, dental schools, and schools of medicine, take for granted that the entering students have already chosen their vocation. They offer courses calculated to train for certain vocations but take little responsibility beyond this. Liberal arts colleges are, for the most part, organized and administered without reference to vocations. Some

affirm that a liberal education has nothing in common with vocational training; that a student cannot get the maximum benefit from a college course if his mind is filled with thoughts about preparations for a vocation. This attitude precludes any vocational study or vocational assistance.

2. *Development of College Guidance Work.* Influenced by the steadily increasing financial difficulties and the competition with large, well-endowed state universities, both of which necessitate a campaign to secure a larger student body, and influenced also by a clear recognition of their responsibility to society for the training of leaders, some liberal arts colleges have departed from this traditional attitude and are giving serious consideration to ways and means of assisting students in their vocational choices.

Some, like Grinnell College, have established departments of Vocational Guidance for the specific purpose of assisting students in the study of vocations and helping them in their vocational choices. The most common agency established is the personnel department. This department, although primarily intended to help in the selection of students for entrance and in the adjustment of them to the college life, nevertheless, does often give incidental help in vocational guidance. The help given by these agencies is largely that of counsel.

3. *Classes in Vocations.* Many studies have been made that show a woeful lack of vocational information on the part of students in colleges and universities. The need of college students for such information has led some colleges to introduce into their curriculums actual classes in vocations. These have been found to be very helpful.

4. *Vocational Conferences.* Many colleges organize some sort of vocational conference either on the campus or in some convenient city where successful men and women representing different occupations are brought in to discuss occupations and occupational problems. These conferences sometimes make use of preliminary or trial interviews of students by employers or employment managers.

5. *Summer Camps.* Stevens Institute of Technology has for years organized and conducted a summer camp where students who are considering engineering as a vocation may go for test-

ing and tryout. This has enabled many boys to find out before it is too late their fitness or lack of fitness for the profession.

6. *Visits to Factories and Shops.* Some colleges have found it helpful to adopt the plan so long in operation in secondary schools of arranging for personally conducted trips to factories, shops, offices, courtrooms, etc., where actual operations may be seen and impressions may be formed.

7. *Tryout and Study-experience Plans.* A number of institutions arrange summer tryout experiences in different types of occupations. There are real jobs where the student gets actual experience and pay. Antioch College organizes, as a part of its liberal arts curriculum, vocational experiences in suitable occupations. For years many institutions, especially engineering schools, have organized the work so that students spend a certain period of time in study and another in business or industry. This enables the student to help pay his way through college; it gives him practical experience while he is studying and often opens the way for employment immediately after graduation.

8. *Junior College.* The reorganization of secondary and collegiate education on the junior-senior college plan materially assists in the solution of the problem of vocational guidance in the college. The University of Chicago has been organized on this basis since its foundation, and many other universities have adopted the plan. This provides for a common basis of work for all in the first two years of the college and for more complete specialization beginning with the junior year. This makes it possible to organize the work of the freshman and sophomore years in such a way as to provide for exploration and tryout work like that of the junior high school. After two years of such work, carefully supervised, the student should be able to choose his major work and his occupation much more intelligently than under the present plan. This advantage is more theoretical than real at present, for, as a rule, colleges and universities have not yet seen the possibilities of the plan nor recognized its importance for purposes of guidance.

Although colleges and universities as a whole have not yet begun to realize the need for assisting students in making their vocational choices, some few are doing pioneer work and are selling the idea so well that rapid progress will undoubtedly result.

REFERENCES

1. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION: COMMITTEE ON STUDENT PER-SONNEL WORK: *Studies Series* VI, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. The following numbers are among the best and most helpful references:

   a. BRAGDON, HELEN, and others: "Educational Counseling of College Students," No. 1, 1945.

   b. COWLEY, W. H., and others: "Occupational Counseling of College Students," No. 2, 1947.

   c. LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER McD.: "Social Competence of College Students," No. 3, 1946.

   d. MERRIAM, THORNTON W., and others: "Religious Counseling of College Students," No. 4, 1947.

   e. SHARPE, RUSSELL T., and others: "Financial Assistance for College Students," No. 7, 1946.

   f. MUELLER, KATE HEVNER, and others: "Counseling for Mental Health," No. 8, 1947.

   g. DARLEY, J. G., and others: "The Use of Mental Tests in College," No. 9, 1947.

   h. SHANK, DONALD P., and others: "The Teacher as Counselor," No. 10, 1948.

   i. KIRKPATRICK, FORREST H., and others: "Helping Students Find Employment," No. 12, 1949.

   j. WILLIAMSON, E. G., Chairman: "The Student Personnel Point of View," rev. ed., No. 13, 1949.

   k. STUIT, DEWEY B., and others: "Predicting Success in Professional Schools," 1949.

2. BENNETT, MARGARET E.: "College and Life," 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. An excellent and comprehensive treatment of problems of college students and methods of help in the solution of these problems. The main heads are (1) Living in College, (2) Learning in College, (3) Building a Life.

3. BENNETT, MARGARET E., and HAROLD C. HAND: "Beyond High School," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. Written for high-school students, this also contains helpful suggestions for college.

4. LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER McD., and MARGARET R. SMITH: "A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. A comprehensive and helpful survey of personnel activities, procedures, and functional programs of personnel work in higher institutions.

5. McGRATH, EARL J.: The Goals of Higher Education, *Journal of Higher Education*, 20:171–180, April, 1949. Discusses the purposes and the future of liberal education.

6. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION: "From High School to College," The Association, Washington, D.C., 1938. A summary of guidance and orientation procedures actually being used in representative high schools and colleges.

7. POWERS, F. F., and others: "Psychology and Everyday Living," D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1938. Part II, "Adjustment to College and Life," and Part III, "Learning and Study," are especially helpful.

8. STRANG, RUTH: "Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1937. A comprehensive treatment of the problem of adjustment of secondary and college students.

9. STRANG, RUTH: "Counseling Techniques in College and Secondary School," rev. ed., Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Discusses the techniques of work with students in colleges and secondary schools.

10. WILLIAMSON, E. G.: Supervision of Counseling Services, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:297-311, August, 1948. Discusses major objectives and methods of counseling services in higher education.

11. WILLIAMSON, E. G., and J. G. DARLEY: "Student Personnel Work," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937. A discussion of student guidance and personnel practices in higher institutions, with special reference to practices in the University of Minnesota.

GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

I. GROUPS IN SPECIAL NEED OF ASSISTANCE

The picture of guidance and pupil personnel services given in the report of Zeran and Jones [1] is very encouraging, especially if we compare it with similar reports in 1935. It is true that facilities are still very inadequate to meet the needs, but at least the problem is understood and definite plans are being made for improvement. The same may be said for student personnel work in colleges and universities and for personnel work in government agencies. Personnel work in business and industry is also recognized as essential and every year adds to the number of firms that are introducing such services.

There are, however, two groups that are badly in need of assistance, for whom little is being done and still less planned. These are older adults and out-of-school, unemployed youth. No attempt will be made to draw a sharp line between youth and young adults, for often the facilities that are provided are for both. This discussion will be limited largely to the out-of-school group but it may not be inappropriate to note, in passing, some of the needs of the older adult.

In the stimulating book, "Length of Life," [2] statistics are given showing the rapidly increasing proportion of men and women sixty-five and over in our total population. The authors also give some suggestions regarding the probable influence of this increasing span of life upon economic and social conditions. It is noteworthy that at the same time as the number and proportion of older men and women is increasing there is also a tendency to make enforced retirement come at an earlier age. This means

[1] ZERAN, FRANKLIN R., and GALEN JONES, The National Picture of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin*, 32:52–73, October, 1948.

[2] DUBLIN, LOUIS L., ALFRED J. LOTKA, and MORTIMER SPIEGELMAN, "Length of Life," rev. ed., The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1949.

that an increasing number of persons sixty and over, many of whom are still well able to do effective work, are, merely because they have reached a certain age, and without their consent, compelled to leave the work on which they have been engaged for many years. This results in great hardship to the individual. It is also a loss to society. We have not yet devised a plan by which the vigor, enthusiasm, and initiative of youth may be combined with the wisdom that comes from long years of experience into a team that will work more effectively than either can alone. Some few at retirement are retained as consultants or advisers, but for the great majority there is no such gradual withdrawal. Some have prepared themselves years in advance and have a hobby or a new interest that enlists their time and energy. However, even though retirement is known to be inevitable, it comes to most workers as an unexpected and unwelcome shock. The sudden breaking of long-established habits of daily routine, of thinking centered upon the job, of friendship with fellow workers; the change from a feeling of being worth something, of belonging, to one of worthlessness or of not belonging anywhere is a shock that is difficult for many to withstand; readjustment is hard to make. Small wonder that so many on retirement soon lose their zest for living, give up, and die. Old age benefits may help to ease the worry about subsistence but will not solve the problem; they may even aggravate it. There will still be the problem of "time on your hands" with nothing worth while to do.

Assistance in preparation for retirement and in adjustment after retirement is badly needed. There is some evidence that this problem is being recognized but few if any plans are being made to provide for it.

II. Changing Attitudes toward Out-of-school Youth

1. *Early Responsibility of the School.* Our great system of public education was established for two purposes: (1) to provide the fundamental education considered necessary for all and (2) to give to a limited number the opportunity for such education as would enable them to enter college or to prepare them for certain limited types of occupations. In early colonial times the obligation for the education of their children rested upon the parents; schools were established and maintained at public expense merely to assist parents in fulfilling this obligation.

CHAPTER XXII

GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

I. GROUPS IN SPECIAL NEED OF ASSISTANCE

The picture of guidance and pupil personnel services given in the report of Zeran and Jones [1] is very encouraging, especially if we compare it with similar reports in 1935. It is true that facilities are still very inadequate to meet the needs, but at least the problem is understood and definite plans are being made for improvement. The same may be said for student personnel work in colleges and universities and for personnel work in government agencies. Personnel work in business and industry is also recognized as essential and every year adds to the number of firms that are introducing such services.

There are, however, two groups that are badly in need of assistance, for whom little is being done and still less planned. These are older adults and out-of-school, unemployed youth. No attempt will be made to draw a sharp line between youth and young adults, for often the facilities that are provided are for both. This discussion will be limited largely to the out-of-school group but it may not be inappropriate to note, in passing, some of the needs of the older adult.

In the stimulating book, "Length of Life," [2] statistics are given showing the rapidly increasing proportion of men and women sixty-five and over in our total population. The authors also give some suggestions regarding the probable influence of this increasing span of life upon economic and social conditions. It is noteworthy that at the same time as the number and proportion of older men and women is increasing there is also a tendency to make enforced retirement come at an earlier age. This means

[1] ZERAN, FRANKLIN R., and GALEN JONES, The National Picture of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin,* 32:52–73, October, 1948.

[2] DUBLIN, LOUIS L., ALFRED J. LOTKA, and MORTIMER SPIEGELMAN, "Length of Life," rev. ed., The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1949.

that an increasing number of persons sixty and over, many of whom are still well able to do effective work, are, merely because they have reached a certain age, and without their consent, compelled to leave the work on which they have been engaged for many years. This results in great hardship to the individual. It is also a loss to society. We have not yet devised a plan by which the vigor, enthusiasm, and initiative of youth may be combined with the wisdom that comes from long years of experience into a team that will work more effectively than either can alone. Some few at retirement are retained as consultants or advisers, but for the great majority there is no such gradual withdrawal. Some have prepared themselves years in advance and have a hobby or a new interest that enlists their time and energy. However, even though retirement is known to be inevitable, it comes to most workers as an unexpected and unwelcome shock. The sudden breaking of long-established habits of daily routine, of thinking centered upon the job, of friendship with fellow workers; the change from a feeling of being worth something, of belonging, to one of worthlessness or of not belonging anywhere is a shock that is difficult for many to withstand; readjustment is hard to make. Small wonder that so many on retirement soon lose their zest for living, give up, and die. Old age benefits may help to ease the worry about subsistence but will not solve the problem; they may even aggravate it. There will still be the problem of "time on your hands" with nothing worth while to do.

Assistance in preparation for retirement and in adjustment after retirement is badly needed. There is some evidence that this problem is being recognized but few if any plans are being made to provide for it.

II. CHANGING ATTITUDES TOWARD OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

1. *Early Responsibility of the School.* Our great system of public education was established for two purposes: (1) to provide the fundamental education considered necessary for all and (2) to give to a limited number the opportunity for such education as would enable them to enter college or to prepare them for certain limited types of occupations. In early colonial times the obligation for the education of their children rested upon the parents; schools were established and maintained at public expense merely to assist parents in fulfilling this obligation.

They were not required to send their children to these schools. Gradually, as the need for education increased and as it became apparent that the home could not or would not provide education, attendance at school became more and more important and compulsory school attendance laws were passed. Efforts were also made to persuade parents to keep their children in school as long as possible. The school gradually assumed responsibility for the entire educational program up to the end of the compulsory attendance age. It did not, however, take upon itself any responsibility for those beyond this age who were not enrolled in the school. When they dropped out of school because of age or graduation, it was assumed that they did not need any further schooling and that they would soon secure employment; therefore the responsibility of the school for them was ended. This is still true in large part, if we are to judge by actual practice. Teachers, principals, and superintendents still too often think of their responsibilities in terms of youth who are in school or who, because of age, should be in school. School boards and citizens do not feel it necessary or desirable to appropriate money to enable the school to extend its services to out-of-school youth.

The need of youth for assistance has greatly increased during the past thirty years. Some of the causes for this are graphically given in Chap. I. Among these may be mentioned (1) the increased complexity of our social and economic life, (2) the increased proportion of employable men and women twenty years of age and over as compared with those under sixteen, (3) the demand for more education and training before entering an occupation, (4) the decreased ability of the home to give the help needed. It is true that the schools have greatly increased their holding power and many more are retained until the age of seventeen or eighteen, but this is more than offset by the lack of chance for employment. Figure 23 shows the great increase in the proportion of young people who completed high school and college in 1940 as compared with that in 1918. But it is still true that nearly two-thirds of those who were enrolled in the fifth grade have not completed high school and less than seven out of a hundred have completed college. This leaves an enormous number of young people from twelve to twenty-two who are out of school. In normal times the great majority of these are not wanted in industry.

2. *Influence of the Depression.* The tragic years of the depression in the 1930's called immediate attention to the plight of youth. Several national agencies, by their study and publications, made the nation as a whole aware of the general conditions. The American Youth Commission was established by the American Council on Education for the study of the problems of youth. The results of the studies have been published in attractive form
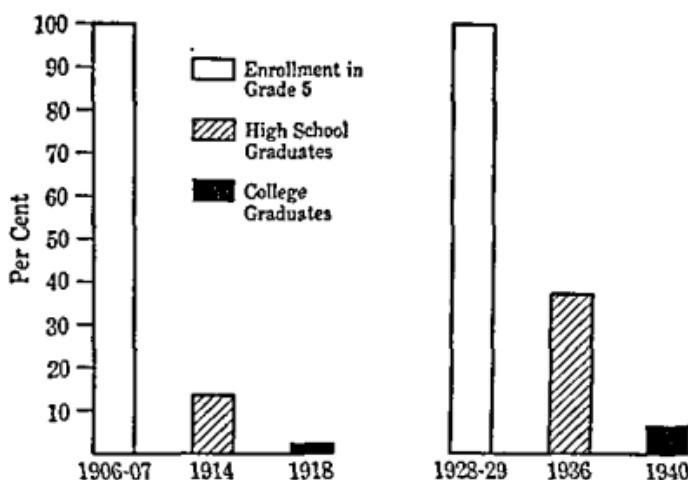
FIG. 23. Change over twenty-two years in per cent of fifth-grade pupils who graduated from high school and from college. (*From Statistical Summary of Education, 1939–1940, and Biennial Survey of the United States, 1938–1940, Vol. II, Chap. I, p. 6.*)

and show very vividly the need for immediate action. Suggestions of types of programs were also made in the hope that communities might be stimulated to take some action. The U.S. Office of Education made youth surveys in many cities that still further focused attention upon the problem. Several communities made independent studies of conditions within their own borders. Two emergency agencies, the CCC and the NYA, were established by Federal authority for the specific purpose of aiding out-of-school unemployed youth. The results of these concerted and more or less coordinated activities left no doubt regarding the needs of out-of-school youth and called attention to some ways by which the situation might be improved.

3. *The Second World War and Youth Problems.* The war situation, especially the lowering of the draft age to include eighteen- and nineteen-year-old youths, greatly reduced the number of unemployed youth. Although this temporarily re-

lieved the unemployment situation, it brought with it other problems of even greater importance. In this chapter we shall confine our attention to what may be called the long-range view, for the coming of peace did not bring to an end the youth crisis. When peace was restored the youth problem again confronted us, with perhaps even greater intensity. This consciousness of the desperate needs of youth has operated to change materially the point of view regarding the obligation of society in general and the school in particular toward youth.

4. *Agencies Concerned with Youth Problems.* No permanent solution of the problem has yet been offered, but certain significant plans have been put into operation. In general, these are: (1) private and service agency plans, (2) community plans with or without the school as a center, (3) Federal and state plans, and (4) school and college plans. Each of these will be discussed with special reference to guidance activities; no attempt will be made to describe in detail all phases of each type of plan.

III. Private and Service Agencies

1. *Private Agencies.* Private employment and counseling agencies have long been established, and their number is rapidly increasing. The Vocational Bureau established by Frank Parsons in 1908 was an example of such an agency and gave valuable service. Another was the Vocational Service for Juniors established in New York by Dr. Mary H. S. Hayes. Both of these were very influential in promoting school and state agencies for youth.

Few private employment agencies make any attempt to counsel individuals who apply; they are chiefly interested in placement, often in any kind of job, so that the agency may receive the fee exacted for the service given. Teachers agencies come into this category, although a few do make rather feeble attempts at helping applicants to select and secure positions that are suitable to their abilities and in which they may be successful.

Whenever unemployment is high and whenever ready money is available, especially from Federal or state funds, private agencies spring up rapidly. At such times the astrologer, the palmist, and representatives of other cults reach the acme of their influence. Some private agencies have rendered very valuable service in counteracting such practices, but many are very inadequate and even vicious in their influence. The efforts to mini-

mize these abuses and to assist in selecting agencies that are worthy are described in Chap. XXVII. We shall always have private agencies, for they represent a real need. Our problem is to control them and see that the service they give is real and effective.

2. *Service Agencies.* It is quite difficult to distinguish clearly between "Service Agencies" and private agencies that give service. Among those that are recognized by general agreement as service agencies are the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., the Y.H.A., and such organizations as Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, etc.

The work of the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. is too well known to need more than a comment. These organizations are giving valuable assistance to young men and women throughout the world. The area of the problems they cover is extremely wide and varied, including housing, finances, education, occupation, and the more personal problems of life and adjustment. Many of these agencies are poorly equipped for real counseling service; but more and more are employing trained counselors. The Y.M.H.A. and Y.W.H.A. are performing a similar service for Hebrews. The B'nai B'rith has been especially active in counseling and placement. The Jewish vocational services in many cities are contributing much to the needs of Jewish youth. The Jewish Occupational Council in New York City is the national association that coordinates the activities of these agencies.

The various service clubs, especially the Kiwanis, Rotary, and Altrusa, have active committees on youth problems and contribute materially to guidance service. For the most part they confine their actual work to assisting schools and other agencies in organizing guidance programs and in securing contacts with local business and industry. The Optimists have a Big Brother Committee that looks after the boys and young men. All these agencies with their different purposes and widely varying personnel contribute materially to the national program of guidance.

Although it is not, strictly speaking, a service club, mention should be made of the outstanding work of the Adjustment Service that operated in 1932 and 1933 under the auspices of the Association for Adult Education. Its director was Jerome Bentley and its reports still give valuable suggestions. Here also should be mentioned the National Urban League. This organization is a national, interracial social-work agency with affiliated branches

in fifty-eight major industrial cities throughout the country. It is serving many thousands of Negroes and materially assisting in the solution of their problems.

In 1940 the American Council on Education [3] found 320 non-governmental youth-serving agencies organized on a national basis. Since 1940 some of these have ceased to operate, but new ones have sprung up in turn. There are many others that operate on a local or state basis.

IV. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

1. *Apathy of Communities.* The general apathy toward the problems of youth, and the reluctance to assume responsibility for helping in the solution of these problems, showed itself, in the past, not only in the failure of the schools to provide facilities for out-of-school youth but also in the failure of communities themselves to take any action. Most of the steps taken to help such youth were initiated by local branches of national organizations, such as the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., the Y.M.H.A. and Y.W.H.A., and the other organizations with a similar purpose. It was not until the period of the depression that communities became sensitive enough to the need to take any concerted action. This interest was seen in the number of community surveys of youth that were made. Between 1931 and 1938 there were several hundred of these national, regional, state, and local surveys.

2. *Types of Community Organizations.* In keeping with American traditions is the fact that almost every type of organization is represented in community planning for youth. Some are entirely community-centered and organized by the community as a whole, with all the agencies organized into a community council of some kind and no agency dominant. A larger number are school-centered; at least, the school is the dominating or coordinating agency. Others are organized in cooperation with some national organization—Federal, philanthropic, or private. These probably constitute the largest number of agencies.

[3] CHAMBERS, M. M., "Youth Serving Organizations, National Non-governmental Associations," 2d ed., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941.

3. *Community Youth Councils.* An increasing number of communities have organized some form of community council. Some of these are devoted entirely to youth problems while others are broader in their scope and concern themselves with all community problems, including those of out-of-school youth. It is not the purpose of this discussion to describe in detail the method of organization and scope of activities of each of the many types of community organizations. We shall merely name and describe, in general, certain representative practices. The so-called "community coordinating councils" or neighborhood councils that have developed in many communities in California are chiefly for the purpose of preventing delinquency. The community information center for the purpose of gathering together vocational information useful to youth who are unemployed has appeared in several cities. In cooperation with the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. or with various service agencies, many cities have established community youth councils that are very effective in reaching out-of-school youth. Omaha, Neb., and Springfield, Mass., are among the cities that have organized Youth Guidance Councils for the purpose of studying the problems of youth and helping in the solution of them. The council is composed of representatives of youth, the schools, social agencies, and other individuals and agencies interested and willing to cooperate. Minneapolis, Denver, and some other cities, working with the NYA, have had very active and effective organizations that have dealt directly with guidance problems of youth. Many of these councils provide for the collection and organization of educational and vocational material and help to secure volunteer counselors who give much of their time to counseling with individuals and groups. Some of these counselors are leading businessmen of the community who willingly give their time to this service. Public libraries are often utilized and provide a room where useful information is gathered together and an assistant librarian is assigned to help individuals who need it.

4. *Agencies for Adjustment of Veterans.* At the close of the Second World War the veterans began streaming back to their homes in ever-increasing numbers. It was soon realized that measures should be adopted to help them in readjustment to civilian life, not only in selecting and securing jobs but also in

readjustment to home, family, and community. The separation centers established by the Army helped, but the amount of time it was possible to give to each veteran was entirely inadequate. Some agency was needed in the community to which the veteran returned. In response to this demand many communities throughout the country set up committees or agencies devoted entirely to meeting the needs of the returning veteran. Some of these were very simple and served merely as a "welcome home" service; others were more elaborate and sought to provide facilities for testing, counseling, and job placement. Some were organized cooperatively with local agencies of the Veterans' Administration, some with schools, and some independently. In Los Angeles, Calif., a "one-stop service station" was set up coordinating the public schools, the Veterans' Administration, and the local U.S. Employment Office. In Rochester and Monroe County, N.Y., a council on postwar planning was organized, supported by the Chamber of Commerce. This provided a centralized counseling and information service for veterans and dislocated civilians; it aimed to broaden and coordinate, not duplicate, what was being done by other agencies. It performed the following services: (1) to veterans, "friendly, confidential counsel, assistance in appraising capacities and limitations, help to those whose education was interrupted, assistance in choosing a job area, collecting and dispensing accurate information about benefits and services, and referral to the proper agencies"; (2) to other people, "counsel regarding educational, vocational and personal plans"; (3) to agencies, "accepting referrals from other agencies and referring to other agencies"; (4) to the community, "suggesting training program, offering consultation and information service to any agency." There were a director and a secretary, and part-time counseling, psychological, and social assistance. The budget was from $14,000 to $22,000 a year.

Another community organization was set up in New Rochelle, N.Y. The "Mayor's Committee for Post-war Planning in New Rochelle" was established. The purpose of this agency was to act as a clearinghouse and coordinating agency for postwar planning; its most important services were guidance and advising. All educational and social agencies were included; there was a Central Adjustment Service Center for direct counseling and

adjustment, which had a receptionist, a counselor, special counselors, librarians, testing service, records supervisor, case board, and American Legion consultant; the center attempted to coordinate the services of all cooperating agencies in the city. A fairly adequate budget was provided. The assistant superintendent of schools was the director.

These are only a few of the many community agencies organized in different parts of the country. It should also be noted that these community organizations offered services to civilians as well as to veterans. Nearly all of these agencies disappeared after the veterans had returned; but a few remain on a greatly reduced scale and are performing useful services. Such community planning was the result of an acute need that was felt universally. The dramatic appeal of sons and daughters returning from the dangers of war cannot, of course, be duplicated in peacetime, even though the need may be fully as great. These enterprises do show, however, what can be done once the need is really felt.

V. FEDERAL AND STATE AGENCIES

The Federal government has, from time to time, indicated a real interest in the guidance of youth. It will be impossible to describe here in any detail all the agencies and services set up for helping, directly or indirectly, out-of-school youth. A few only will be mentioned. The two Federal agencies that were most directly concerned with guidance of out-of-school youth were the NYA and the CCC. Although they have passed out of existence, their influence remains and the general pattern of their work provides many important suggestions that should be considered in the future plans for youth.

A. NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION

1. *Origin and Purpose.* The NYA was established on June 26, 1935, by executive order under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act. Its functions and duties were described by the President as follows: [4]

---

[4] EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION, "The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration and the Public Schools," pp. 11–14, National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., October, 1941.

To initiate and administer a program of approved projects which shall provide relief, work relief, and employment for persons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five years who are no longer in regular attendance at a school requiring full time, and who are not regularly engaged in remunerative employment.

The *educational program of the NYA* was limited for some time by the provisions of the annual Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts to the effect that "no portion of the funds hereby appropriated shall be allocated or used for any purpose except to provide relief or work relief for persons in need." In some communities, however, classes for NYA youth were organized under the WPA adult education programs and under the programs of vocational education in the public schools. The NYA itself operated several experimental resident centers for boys and girls, the programs of which included instruction as well by work. Class instruction in these centers was given chiefly by NYA supervisors.

In June, 1938, Congress changed the language of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act as it applied to the NYA, and authorized the expenditure of NYA funds "to provide part-time work *and training* to needy young persons who are no longer in regular attendance at school and who have been unable to obtain employment."

The most intensive educational work was done in the resident centers. By May, 1940, there were approximately 600 resident centers in operation in 45 states, enrolling over 30,000 youth, or about 10 per cent of all youth employed on NYA out-of-school work projects. In a typical resident center, the NYA boy or girl spent about half time on production or service projects and on the maintenance of the center, and half time in attendance at classes. Instruction was given in vocational subjects in the trade and industrial, agricultural, and commercial fields; in home-making and health; in civics and public affairs; and in a variety of other subjects from elementary language and arithmetic through the high-school level. The NYA employed supervisors of education and teachers on the staffs of its resident centers. State boards for vocational education, colleges, and public schools furnished some teachers for some of the centers; but the control of the educational programs rested with NYA officials.

The NYA also provided programs of "related training" and

other education for youth employed on nonresident work projects. It did not always employ complete teaching staffs but often used its supervisors and foremen as instructors, and enlisted cooperation from schools and other educational agencies. Courses included a wide range of general school subjects, as well as instruction directly related to work on projects. Classes were held during time off project work. Attendance was voluntary.

On Apr. 25, 1939, the President transmitted Reorganization Plan No. I to the Congress. This plan created the Federal Security Agency and transferred both the NYA and the CCC to that agency as of July 1, 1939. In the message of transmittal, the President said of the NYA:

. . . its major purpose is to extend the educational opportunities of the youth of the country and to bring them through the processes of training into the possession of skills which enable them to find employment. . . . Work projects . . . have been merely the process through which its major purpose was accomplished.

2. *Guidance Activities.* In accordance with the general purpose as outlined a very important part of the work of the NYA was the guidance of youth. The functions related to guidance are described as follows by Dr. Hayes: [5]

1. *Study of the Individual.* In 32 states a personnel card has been developed for out-of-school youth applying for NYA work. This includes the social, educational, and work history, and the record of his outside interest and ambitions.

2. *Tryout Courses.* The NYA work projects have had as one of their objectives to provide a work experience for young people which would enable them to get a tryout in some type of work in order to determine if it is in accordance with their interest and abilities. These projects are of necessity limited, but an effort is made to have them cover as many lines of work as possible.

3. *Occupational Information.* The preparation of occupational information has been especially developed in the State of Illinois, but five other states have also prepared bulletins and three others are now engaged in doing so. In all, 81 bulletins are completed or in process. In general these bulletins have been prepared by industries rather than by specific occupations. In them, an effort is made to give a general picture of the industry, to describe the jobs especially

[5] Hayes, Mary H. S., "NYA Youth Placement," *Occupations,* 16:737, 738, May, 1938.

characteristic of that industry, to give an indication of the geographical distribution of the industry and such information as is possible to obtain regarding its trends of expansion or regression.

4. *Individual Counseling.* In ten communities where technical assistance could be obtained from cooperating agencies, Consultation Services for out-of-school youth have been established. Five of these Centers were set up, from the beginning, in cooperation with State Employment Services, and in two others such cooperative arrangements have now been established. The largest number of young people are referred to these offices from State Employment Services but references come also from schools, social agencies, and interested private citizens.

5. *Group Guidance.* Under this heading the Youth Administration has attempted to provide occupational information and an opportunity for discussion in various ways. In Illinois, occupational classes have been established for out-of-school youth during the late afternoons and evenings. Over 5,000 such classes have been held during the last two years with an attendance of more than 107,000 youths. Over 300 industrial motion pictures were shown in connection with these classes.

In other states the giving of this information has taken the form of career conferences or of guidance institutes. In fifteen states weekly radio programs on occupations have been arranged. These generally take the form of talks given by workers in the various fields which are afterwards mimeographed for distribution. In still other states forums have been developed for discussion of the general problems facing young people.

In seventeen states directories have been compiled on opportunities for training which the states provide.

3. *Cooperation with Other Agencies.* In the beginning of its work, while it was still considered as distinctly a relief agency, there was little attempt to coordinate the activities of the NYA with those of other agencies. After its purpose was changed and it had assumed some of the aspects of an educational agency, it continually sought such cooperation. There was considerable cooperation between the NYA and the public schools. Schools frequently opened their shops, laboratories, commercial facilities, and libraries to enrollees and provided evening classes in school subjects, especially to those in resident centers. School representatives frequently served on Youth Councils and other committees of the NYA. Well-coordinated city-wide programs such

as those in Denver and Minneapolis, already mentioned, have shown some of the possibilities of coordinated effort.

4. *Some Results of NYA Organization.* Although there is a great difference of opinion regarding the ultimate place of such a Federal youth agency as the NYA, there is almost universal recognition of the value of some of its activities. The aid to students in high school and college enabled thousands of youth to continue their education beyond the point otherwise possible for them. It thus contributed to out-of-school youth by reducing their number. The work experiences of these youths, while enabling them to continue in school, were not utilized by the school sufficiently for guidance purposes. The exigencies of the situation did not usually permit supervisors to allot jobs on the basis of exploration and tryout, nor even according to the desire or the ability of the student. In some cases, students were not properly supervised nor even required to do their work well. These defects are not inherent in the plan but are due largely to lack of interest or lack of time for adequate oversight and supervision. The residence centers frequently afforded real opportunities for continuous and effective guidance.

B. CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

1. *Origin and Purpose.*

First of the federal youth agencies was the *Civilian Conservation Corps* (originally the Emergency Conservation Work), established by Executive Order No. 6101, on April 5, 1933, under an Act of Congress approved on March 31, 1933, for the relief of unemployment through the performance of useful public work, and for other purposes. This law was enacted for the purpose of relieving the acute condition of widespread distress and unemployment now existing in the United States, and in order to provide for the restoration of the country's depleted natural resources and the advancement of an orderly program of useful public works.[6]

When it was first created, its primary objectives were the furnishing of employment to idle young men and the conduct of a sound conservation program in our forests, parks, and fields. It soon became clear that the needs of the youth enrolled in these camps could not be met by relief employment alone. Many had

[6] EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

not completed elementary school, and nearly all needed the guidance of adult counselors to keep up their morale and to plan for the future.

The *educational program of the CCC* was begun in December, 1933, largely as a result of the efforts of the then U.S. Commissioner of Education. An educational adviser was appointed for each camp and the teaching services of camp officers, work supervisors, public school teachers, and FERA teachers were enlisted on a voluntary basis. Courses were offered, chiefly in the evenings after work, in vocational and academic subjects, the latter on levels ranging from elementary through high school.[7]

Thus it was recognized that the outstanding contribution of these camps should be the creation and preservation of moral and spiritual values among the enrollees. Dr. Fechner expressed this purpose as follows: "Our major purpose is to help each boy to find himself, to arouse his ambition, and to aid him in obtaining employment."

2. *Guidance Activities.* It soon became apparent that the boys enrolled in camps needed wise counsel in almost every phase of their lives. Coming as they did from widely different situations, unused to camp discipline, unskilled in most of the operations that were necessary in the work projects, with morale at its lowest, their dominant need was friendship and guidance. Counseling and guidance were considered to be basic to every educational activity of the camp. These functions involved all the available resources and techniques pertinent to enrollees to the end that the enrollee should make wise decisions, enter into constructive activity, and be given the aids to assure him a reasonable degree of success in attaining his goals.

As might be expected, the guidance function of the camps was not fully recognized at the beginning. This developed from the experience of the educational advisers with the enrollees and from a careful study of their needs. The growing realization of the need for guidance resulted in a special pamphlet, "Guidance in the Civilian Conservation Corps Camp," issued as mimeographed pamphlet No. 67026, U.S. Office of Education. This was widely distributed and used with profit by many advisers.

[7] *Ibid.,* p. 12.

This recognizes five steps or elements in the guidance program and suggests appropriate objectives and procedures for each. These were (1) orientation, (2) counseling, (3) assignment, (4) evaluation, and (5) placement and follow-up. Few, if any, camps developed complete and satisfactory programs in all of these steps or areas.

The first guidance problem in the CCC was that of adjustment and orientation to camp life and discipline. Many of the enrollees were healthy and earnest boys, but not a few were subnormal, apathetic, ignorant, ill-prepared, and often truculently indifferent.

It is estimated that fully 40 per cent of the enrollees found it difficult to adjust themselves to camp life. The chief reasons for desertion are given as (1) homesickness, which was often combined with other reasons; (2) attitude of older enrollees toward the new men, which was often shown by mild and severe hazing; (3) the strange and complicated organization of the camp; (4) inability to mix with other men; (5) the "gang" influence of the groups planning to desert.

The general plan in operation in the better organized camps to meet this situation was as follows: As soon as possible after entrance, each boy was interviewed by the educational adviser and the essential facts regarding previous schooling, previous work experience, family conditions, and personal development were recorded. Most camps used some form of cumulative records and some made use of the cumulative records of the school which the boy attended last. By lectures and personal conferences each boy was given a complete picture of camp life and made aware of camp duties. Pamphlets such as "Once in a Lifetime" and "Happy Days," were used as aids, and mimeographed material dealing with conditions peculiar to the particular camp was made available. Boys who had unusual difficulties in adjustment to camp life were carefully observed, and the help needed was given both in interviews and in very informal conversations while they were at work or engaged in recreational activities.

The number of deserters from the camps is evidence that this part of the guidance program was not so effective as it should have been.

Practically all enrollees needed and asked help regarding educational problems. These involved choice of studies at the camp and future educational plans. Many boys had problems of personal adjustment involving not only camp life and associations with other boys but also even more fundamental problems of general attitudes, life objectives, relations with parents, girl friends, and employers. The unusual opportunities afforded by residence and work in the camps made possible intimate and continuous contacts that greatly facilitated the efforts of the adviser in giving needed help.

Some of the most insistent problems were those connected with occupational choice and placement. The camp work projects requiring the development of skills necessary for certain types of jobs were very limited and, especially in the conservation projects, quite unlike the jobs which most of the boys would probably be able to secure after they left camp. However, these were utilized as far as possible, and effort was made to supply occupational information of a varied nature. This was given by group interviews, by pamphlets and books, and in some cases by organized classes for the study of occupations. Problems related to placement of those who left were vigorously attacked. Special courses were organized in "job getting," and pamphlets designed especially for the camp enrollees were available. The adviser attempted to keep in close touch with employers in various types of work and to aid in the problem of placement by arranging interviews with employers and establishing contacts with public and private employment agencies. These techniques were so well developed that a large percentage of those who left went directly into jobs.

3. *Cooperation with Schools and Community.* The isolation of many of the camps made difficult and often impossible any cooperation between the camps and local schools and communities. In some cases it was possible to work out very effective plans. School shops were utilized in the evenings by camp enrollees and other types of classes organized in the schools to supplement the educational opportunities in the camps themselves. Public libraries arranged special rooms for CCC boys and provided reference shelves for educational advisers. Community councils were of especial help to boys who left camp and returned home. They aided them in readjustment to home

conditions and in securing suitable employment. In some cases high schools gave credit toward graduation for work done in the camps.

It is evident that the leaders of the CCC had a clear conception of the educational function of the camps and recognized the necessity for a well-developed guidance program. There were many factors in the organization and administration of the camps that retarded or prevented the full realization of the program.

C. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE NYA AND THE CCC

There can be no doubt that these two Federal agencies made real contributions to the education and training of youth. They were of immediate and practical help to youth in the depression period, but even more than this they opened up new avenues in education and showed the value of work experience in the education of youth.

The CCC camps and the NYA resident centers

. . . have demonstrated that what is necessary for the development of upstanding morale in many young people is a combination of suitable education and responsible labor.

If the present secondary schools could have access to well-equipped institutions of this type, to which they could assign cases of the kind not suited to the ordinary secondary school organization, these would be a great gain to society.[8]

In spite of the general approval of the contributions of these agencies, there has never been any general agreement regarding the advisability of continuing them, at least as they were originally organized and administered. The chief objections centered around the following points:

1. The problems involved are essentially education problems. This is evidenced by the increasing emphasis that was given to the educational objectives and activities of these agencies.

2. Education of youth is and should be primarily a state and local, not a Federal, matter; this is the American plan.

3. The organization of a separate Federal education program for youth parallel to the state and local system of schools would not only be opposed to the American tradition but would inevitably create undesirable rivalry and sources of friction.

[8] STUDEBAKER, JOHN W., Possibilities of Education through the CCC, *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 19:297, 298, May, 1937.

4. Communities should be stimulated to provide adequate facilities for their own youth rather than to unload their responsibilities upon the Federal government.

5. The Federal government should aid states and communities in setting up adequate facilities for the education of youth rather than to establish a separate and parallel system of schools.

Owing partly to these real objections and partly to needed war economies, but more largely to certain types of political rivalries and jealousies, both of these agencies have been discontinued. Although their passing may, perhaps, have been inevitable, it is unfortunate that these two interesting experiments could not have been continued until they had even more thoroughly demonstrated their value and had pointed the way more clearly to certain types of organizations that would be more effective in the education and guidance of youth.

It seems probable that their successes and their failures and the discussions of the issues involved will result in some plan of cooperation between the Federal government and the states by which a more adequate program for the education of all youth will be developed. The feeling is growing that some such agencies must be established in the postwar period to take care both of returned veterans and of the on-coming youth.

D. THE ARMED FORCES

Although we cannot place members of the armed forces in the category of unemployed youth, the guidance and personnel services of these agencies to youth should be recognized. It is not desirable in this discussion to enter into any detailed description of these services. Due largely to experiences in the First World War, personnel services were introduced in all phases of program. These were greatly expanded during the Second World War, and have been proved to be very effective. They include problems related to initial induction, to classification, to training, and to personal adjustments. They also include assistance at the end of service in reentering civilian life.

E. THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The contribution of this agency to the guidance of out-of-school youth has been outstanding. It has not confined its attention to youth but a large part of its activities has been directed to youth.

Through its cooperation with state employment agencies it has definitely raised the standards of these agencies and has influenced the introduction of real counseling into what was formerly only placement service.

F. THE VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION

The counseling and advising services of the Veterans' Administration have already been discussed. Through their bureaus of counseling services for veterans they have, for the most part, given a high grade of guidance and personnel services to veterans. Many of these agencies are still operating under private or university control and extending their services to young and old.

G. VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION SERVICES FOR THE CIVILIAN DISABLED

The original Vocational Rehabilitation Act for Civilians was signed by President Wilson on Jun. 2, 1920. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments were enacted in 1943 and established a comprehensive state-Federal program. The following quotations from an article by Hunt [9] will explain the general workings of the service:

> Under the terms of the new Act a disabled individual to be eligible must have a physical or mental disability which constitutes a vocational handicap. . . .
> Each State is required by the Act to submit an approvable State Plan to the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation before Federal funds can be made available. . . .
> All of the 48 states, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and Alaska have utilized the provisions of Public Law 113 and all except Alaska now have a program of vocational rehabilitation in operation.
> State agency personnel provide medical and vocational guidance throughout the rehabilitation process; the agency counselor sees that the disabled individual is placed in suitable employment and maintains follow-up to insure satisfactory placements. Case services provided to the rehabilitation client, however, are purchased by the agency from hospitals, clinics, doctors, universities, trade schools, on-the-job training establishments, etc. These services are not obtained as charity services or at a "cut-rate" but are purchased at prevailing rates in the community. . . .

[9] HUNT, JOSEPH, Administration of Rehabilitation Services for the Civilian Disabled, *Educational Outlook*, 23:134–146, March, 1949.

Each agency has a case-finding system designed to facilitate referral to it of all individuals who need rehabilitation services. Cooperative agreements are entered into with public and private agencies such as welfare agencies, schools, State Employment Services, Workmen's Compensation Commissions, Tuberculosis Associations, etc. These cooperative agreements at the state and local levels are given impetus by comparable agreements made at the national level. . . .

Throughout the rehabilitation process, however, that is, from the time the disabled individual is accepted for rehabilitation services until the period of post-placement supervision is over, the state agency never relinquishes responsibility for the client's rehabilitation. . . .

After the disabled individual has been determined eligible for vocational rehabilitation services, a vocational objective is decided upon jointly by the counselor and the client and a comprehensive plan of services to reach that objective is drawn up. The plan might include as few as three and as many as ten or twelve services. During 1947, 9,640 out of each 10,000 individuals rehabilitated by state agencies received medical examinations; 1,288 out of 10,000 were hospitalized; tuition was paid for 3,280; surgical treatment was provided for 1,163; artificial limbs were furnished to 931 of each 10,000 rehabilitants. Colleges and universities trained 24 per cent of the clients rehabilitated, business colleges 20 per cent; public vocational schools 9 per cent; private trade schools 16 per cent; business establishments 19 per cent; correspondence schools, tutors, and others 12 per cent. . . .

The rehabilitation plan is carried out under the supervision of the counselor. As the client is being provided with the necessary services the counselor keeps in close touch with his progress. When all necessary services have been provided, the counselor places the client in employment suitable to his abilities, interests, and aptitudes and commensurate with the training provided. In placing the disabled individual the counselor utilizes wherever possible the local state employment service office. After the client begins to work, the counselor does not close the case as "rehabilitated" until he is certain that the client has made a satisfactory adjustment to the new job. . . .

The rehabilitation counselor, under the supervision of a district supervisor or a senior counselor, is responsible for locating, investigating, and determining the eligibility of any disabled person in need of vocational rehabilitation in an assigned area (e.g., certain counties); for assisting the disabled individual in selecting, preparing for, and attaining the vocational adjustment affording the greatest social and economic satisfaction.

VI. Public Educational Agencies Serving Out-of-school
Youth

1. *Public High Schools*

a. Wartime Services. During the progress of the Second World War, public high schools through their preinduction programs gave assistance to those who were about to be inducted into the armed services. This assistance was extended also to those out of school. Many high schools kept in close touch with their graduates after entering service and were of material assistance in maintaining morale and in the problems of readjustment into civilian life after the veteran had returned.

b. Types of Help Offered. Even before the influence of the war was felt, many schools had begun to enlarge their programs to include facilities for those who were no longer enrolled in the regular day schools. Evening schools, part-time schools, cooperative schools of all types were started. Opportunity schools, like the well-known Denver Opportunity School, had sprung up in different parts of the country. So-called "postgraduate" work was offered for unemployed graduates of the high school. Some of these developed into local junior colleges which often provided the first two years of liberal arts college work and sometimes had terminal courses of one or two years. These gave opportunity for the school to study the needs of youth and to give them effective guidance in all its aspects. Owing largely to the impetus of the war and increased Federal and state subsidies, greatly enlarged vocational training courses were established. Many schools increased their efforts to follow up students who had left school and freely offered their instructional and guidance services to all who would avail themselves of them.

c. Adjustment Institute. Because of the difficulty of adapting the school to these new problems, George E. Myers [10] has proposed a very suggestive plan, which he calls the "Adjustment Institute." This institute should be a regular unit of the school system. It would serve the needs of adults as well as youth. "All youth in the community would be transferred to the institute upon leaving school, as they now are transferred from junior high to senior high school. Some would be assisted in finding

---

[10] Myers, George E., "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," pp. 321–326, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941.

employment; others in entering college or a special school; others in gaining admittance to the Civilian Conservation Corps." The chief purpose of the institute would be to help each individual make the adjustments necessary in the first few years after leaving school. Such community activities as those organized under the old NYA program might be taken over by this new unit of the school system. This institute would be in a position to cooperate fully with the regular parts of the educational system, with community agencies, and with business and industry. If state and Federal funds equal to those allotted to junior employment work and to the defunct NYA organization were made available for such community adjustment institutes, they could be operated with little extra expense to the communities. The effectiveness of such a unified program would be far greater than is possible with the scattered and uncoordinated activities now in operation.

2. The Adult-education Program

a. The Expanding Concept of Public Education. The old concept that education was something for the child and the immature youth was later expanded to include older youth who were preparing for some profession. We now see that education has a very important function to perform for older people as well; it is something that is or may be lifelong. The development of adult-education programs has been very rapid in recent years. Much of the credit for this is due to the influence of the Association for Adult Education under the able leadership of Morse A. Cartwright.

b. Present Status of Adult Education. In 1947–1948, the U.S. Office of Education made a survey of adult-education activities in the public schools of the country.[11] This survey included a total of 4,815 school districts. The term "adult education" was taken to include activities designed to serve the needs of adults and out-of-school youth beyond the compulsory-attendance age. There was about an 80 per cent return. Of the school districts, 2,684 reported some form of educational activities for adults. Some of the results were as follows:

1. Educational activities for adults and out-of-school youth take many forms. Approximately 60 per cent of all schools reporting activ-

---

[11] KEMPFER, HOMER, *Adult Education Activities of the Public Schools,* U.S. *Office of Education,* Pamphlet No. 107, Washington, D.C., 1949.

ities claim to have evening or adult schools; of the aggregate total of activities reported, evening and adult schools constitute about one-seventh.

2. The most widespread types of adult education reported were evening and adult schools, exhibits to the public, related apprentice training, film showings, training-within-industry programs, afternoon classes, workshops and short institutes, community center activities, open forums, concert series, lecture series, and adult-guidance services, in the order named.

3. Least widespread types of adult education activities reported were block leader organizations, special activities for people past retirement age, radio listeners' groups, and educational camps.

4. [There are] fewer adult education activities among selected smaller districts. In this survey districts of 2,500 and under show a high incidence of adult education; most of them were selected because they were thought to have educational services for adults. The trend shown substantiates the common observation that adult education under public-school auspices is more often found in the larger communities.

5. While most educational activities for adults and out-of-school youth go on in the evening, there is considerable activity in other portions of the day. Four hundred and seventy-seven districts report afternoon classes and 269 claim to have morning classes.

6. About 12 per cent reported guidance services of some kind, mostly merely choice of subjects.

7. The returns from 2,196 school districts reported 2,128,877 adults and out-of-school youth involved in public-school adult education activities during 1947–1948. In many cases local figures were approximations. Additional information available in annual reports, statistics of vocational education, and special state reports lead one to estimate that an additional minimum of 820,000 were enrolled. It is altogether likely that the public schools provided some type of organized and systematic educational service to approximately 3,000-000 adults and out-of-school youth in 1947–1948.

8. A total of approximately 3,000,000 youths and adults were reached by these activities.

How large a part of these activities was given to guidance and what sort of guidance was given is not clear from this report. It is significant that so much provision is made for the education of adults and that so many take advantage of the facilities offered. This fact alone indicates the unlimited possibilities for guidance and personnel services in this field.

REFERENCES

1. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION: "Youth Education Today," Sixteenth Yearbook, 1938, The Association, Washington, D.C., 1938. An exhaustive report of the Commission on Youth Problems. Describes the facilities for the education of youth now available, and formulates recommendations.

2. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION: "Youth and the Future," The Council, Washington, D.C., 1942. This is the general report of the American Youth Commission. A critical and unbiased treatment of the problems confronting youth.

3. CAVAN, RUTH S., and others: "Personal Adjustment in Old Age," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1949. A useful study of old-age problems and adjustments.

4. CHAMBERS, M. M.: "Youth-serving Organizations," 2d ed., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941. A report of the national nongovernmental youth-serving organizations. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. This is another valuable contribution to the study of youth problems.

5. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION: "The American Association of Youth Administration and the Public Schools," The Association, Washington, D.C., October, 1941. Contains the recommendations of the Commission regarding the CCC and the NYA.

6. FEDERATION EMPLOYMENT SERVICE: Experience, Loyalty, Skill, Come with Age, *Occupations*, 27:301-306, February, 1949. Reports on a campaign to secure jobs for middle-aged and older workers.

7. HOLLAND, KENNETH, and FRANK ERNEST HILL: "Youth in the CCC," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1942. A summary report of a five-year study of the CCC made for the American Youth Commission. A very useful presentation of facts, a sympathetic evaluation and criticism of practices, and suggestions for improvement.

8. KEMPFER, HOMER: Adult Education Activities of the Public Schools, *U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet* No. 107, Washington, D.C., 1949.

9. KLEIN, PAUL E., and RUTH E. MOFFITT: "Counseling Techniques in Adult Education," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. One of the best discussions on counseling adults.

10. LAWTON, GEORGE E.: "New Goals for Old Age," Columbia University Press, New York, 1948. Deals mostly with nonoccupational problems.

11. LORWIN, LEWIS L.: "Youth Work Programs," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. A valuable basic discussion of work programs for youth.

12. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," Chaps. V and XVI, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. Discusses the problems of out-of-school youth and describes an adjustment institute for youth.

13. POWELL, JOHN WALKER: "Education for Maturity," Hermitage House, New York, 1949.

14. REED, ANNA Y.: "Guidance and Personnel Services in Education," Cornell University Press, Ithaca, N.Y., 1944. Chapter XVI, "Post School Facilities and Methods," is an extensive and helpful treatment of the topic.

15. WARD, ROSWELL: "Out-of-school Vocational Guidance," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. A general discussion of the functions and principles of vocational guidance for out-of-school youth.

GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK FOR NEGRO YOUTH

I. SOURCES OF NEGRO YOUTH PROBLEMS

In Chap. III an attempt was made to outline large areas out of which the problems of youth arise. This was done because a knowledge of these areas often helps in determining the method of attack by the counselor. More important still is a knowledge of the sources and the causes of the problems. That the causes are varied and complex is evident; it is often quite impossible to single out any one cause or any group of them that are the most important factors. While this is true, we may still say that many problems have their origin in differences between individuals or groups of individuals. Certain problems would not arise if all had the same income. The fact that some are very poor while others are very rich produces problems. Differences in stature, sex, color of eyes and hair, ability, power, temperament, drive, race, are all sources or possible sources of very serious problems. While these are real sources of problems they are not, for the most part, causes of problems. The causes more often lie in the attitudes of individuals toward the differences. This is a distinction of the utmost importance and should be kept in mind continually in considering the problems of Negroes.

The problems of Negro youth are not fundamentally different in kind from those of other youth, especially those of other minority groups, but they often differ in degree to such an extent that they may almost be called problems peculiar to the Negro. Most of these problems have their origin in certain differences that are called "racial." That they are not entirely racial in the narrow sense seems evident. In the United States anyone with "a drop of Negro blood in his veins" is called a Negro. Thousands of men and women classed as Negroes are racially more white than Negro. If we could trace the ancestry of many Negroes, we would find the best white blood of the nation present. It is not

race alone, it is color combined with race. Still another element of great importance is social tradition. Nearly all Negroes of this country came "up from bondage." The tradition of slavery, of lack of equality with white people, of social caste, still persists. These three differences, race, color, and "previous condition of servitude," act together as complex and powerful sources of many of the most difficult and baffling problems of the Negro. These fundamental differences are in turn and cumulatively causes of many other differences—in education, occupation, temperament, and personality. Let us remember that the cause of the problems is not the fact of differences; it is the attitude both of the white and of the Negro toward the differences.

The limits of this chapter will not allow for more than a brief sketch of these sources and causes as they affect the problems of Negro youth. In this discussion attention should be given both to the conditions and to the changes that have taken place rather rapidly, for the changes are themselves very important sources of problems.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEMS

1. *Population and Distribution.* According to the census, there were 10,463,131 Negroes in the United States in 1920; 11,891,143 in 1930; and 12,865,518 in 1940. This was an increase
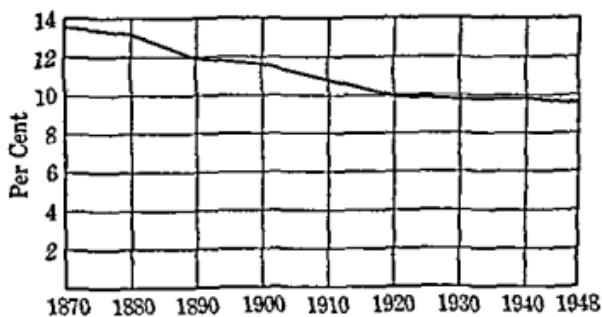
FIG. 24. Changes in the proportion of Negroes to total population.

of 2,402,387 in twenty years. Although the increase in their number for each decade was so great, the proportion of Negroes to the total population has steadily decreased. This is shown by Fig. 24. The highest percentage was 19.3 in 1790. In 1870, the percentage was 13.5 and in 1930, it was 9.7. There was a slight increase in 1940, to 9.8, but in 1946 it again was 9.7.

The early decrease in percentage of Negroes as compared with whites is explainable because of immigration. This, of course, affected the white population much more than it did the Negro. Since immigration has been restricted this cause has been removed. It may be that the leveling off of the proportion seen from 1920 to 1930 is due to this factor. The larger birth rate for Negroes as compared with whites is an equalizing force. There is some doubt whether the relatively larger increase in the birth rate of Negroes will continue; even now it is less than for the whites in urban areas. The decreasing birth rate taken in connection with the greater death rate and the shorter life span of the Negro as compared with the white makes the picture much more significant and calls for wise family and health guidance.

The distribution of Negroes in various sections of the country is quite uneven. This distribution for the three decades, 1920, 1930, and 1940, is shown in Table XXXII. No data are available as yet for 1950.

TABLE XXXII. DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES IN SECTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

Areas	Percentages		
	1920	1930	1940
South...............	85.1	78.7	77.0
North...............	14.1	20.3	21.2
West.	0.8	1.0	1.8

The greatest change in the distribution of Negroes within the United States since 1790 occurred in the decade 1920 to 1930. Previous to 1919, the proportion of the Negro population living in the South did not vary greatly from decade to decade. The principal direction of such migration as took place was toward the West-South. As seen in the table, the northward migration from 1920 to 1930 was very marked. It was still strong in the next decade. After 1940 the mobility of the entire population due to war conditions was especially marked among the Negroes. The proportion of Negroes in different states also varied greatly.

In 1930 the lowest proportion of Negroes was in the Dakotas and Maine, a percentage of 0.1. The highest percentage was 50.2 in Mississippi.

Another change was in the proportion of Negroes in rural and urban territories as compared with the total distribution. In 1920 there were 66.0 per cent of Negroes living in rural areas as compared with 48.6 per cent of the total population. Nearly 40 per cent lived actually on the land. This, however, is changing rapidly; the movement toward the cities is very apparent and is much greater for the Negroes than for the total population. This is shown in Table XXXIII.

TABLE XXXIII. PERCENTAGE OF NEGROES IN CITIES, COMPARED WITH TOTAL URBAN POPULATION

	1910, per cent	1920		1930		1940		Per cent of increase, 1910–1940
		Per cent	Per cent of increase	Per cent	Per cent of increase	Per cent	Per cent of increase	
Total population....	45.8	51.4	12.2	56.2	9.3	56.5	0.51	23.4
Negroes....	27.3	34.0	24.5	43.7	2.85	48.6	11.2	95.5

In the period from 1910 to 1940 the percentage of Negroes living in the cities increased 95.5 per cent while that of the total population increased only 23.4 per cent. In New York, the Harlem area is really a city of Negroes and larger than the entire population of Atlanta, Ga.

These differences and especially the changes in the distribution of population are of great significance in the guidance of Negro youth. Unofficial data indicate that this movement still continues. Its significance is emphasized by one of the causes underlying it. Negroes feel more the restrictions and limitations placed upon them when they are with people who do not have the same limitations. In cities they tend, like other minority groups, to congregate in communities made up mostly of their

own race. In such a situation they do not feel the limitations so strongly because their companions have the same limitations.

2. *Educational Conditions.* The marked inequalities between the educational facilities provided for Negroes as compared with those for white children is not only the effect of "racial" differences already noted but also the cause of many of them. These inequalities are too well known to make extended discussion necessary. Table XXXIV shows the differences between the percentage of Negroes attending school at each age, five to twenty, as compared with that of the total population.

TABLE XXXIV. PERCENTAGE OF NEGROES AND OF TOTAL POPULATION
ATTENDING SCHOOL AT VARIOUS AGES, 1920, 1930

	Ages															
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1920:																
Negro....	11.8	42.9	64.9	72.7	77.0	80.0	82.1	80.6	79.3	73.4	63.3	47.1	30.5	17.3	9.9	4.6
Total.....	18.8	63.3	83.3	88.5	90.4	83.0	93.5	93.2	92.5	86.3	72.9	50.8	34.6	21.7	13.8	8.3
1930:																
Negro..	12.7	50.3	76.4	84.6	88.2	91.0	92.2	90.8	89.1	83.0	72.9	55.4	36.7	20.8	12.2	5.6
Total..	20.0	66.3	80.4	94.1	95.6	97.1	97.5	97.1	98.5	92.9	84.6	66.3	47.9	30.7	19.8	13.1

It will be seen that at each age the percentage of Negro children attending school was much less than for the total population, but the percentage of attendance for Negroes at each age was considerably greater in 1930 than in 1920. However, even in 1930 the percentage of Negroes had not reached the percentage for the total population in 1920. It should also be noted that the increase in attendance in the years fifteen to twenty was much greater for the total population than for Negroes. That is, the holding power of the schools for Negro youth fifteen to twenty years of age as compared with that for all youth was actually much less in 1930 than it was in 1920. Reliable figures show that only 15.1 per cent of youth fifteen to nineteen years old were attending high school in 1933–1934.

Many studies have shown the following educational conditions among Negroes:

(1) A high illiteracy rate (22.9 per cent in 1930), (2) high pupil mortality, (3) large numbers of children who are overage, (4) large numbers of children out of school, (5) poor school attendance, (6)

lack of operation of compulsory school attendance laws, (7) lack of schools, (8) lack of general curriculum and extracurriculum offerings, (9) lack of vocational offerings and guidance, and (10) lack of adequate financial support.[1]

Ninety-three per cent of all Negro schools were of the one-, two-, and three-teacher type; 64 per cent were one-teacher schools. Over a million children, or nearly half the total school enrollment, came from farms; 24,000 or nearly half of all Negro teachers were employed in schools of the one- and two-teacher type. Some of the differences between the educational facilities for Negroes and for whites are strikingly shown by Figs. 25 and 26.
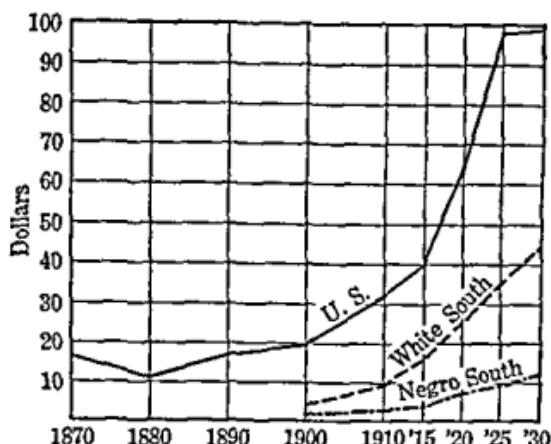
FIG. 25. Average expenditure per pupil in the United States and in the South, 1870–1930.
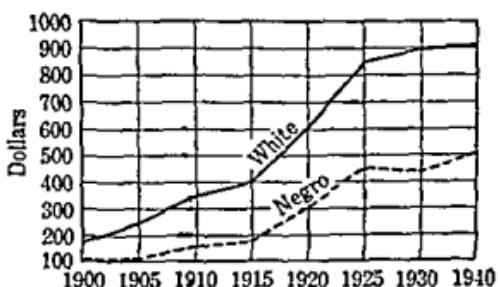
FIG. 26. Average annual salaries of white teachers and Negro teachers, 1900–1930.

[1] CALIVER, AMBROSE, Vocational Education and Guidance for Negroes, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 38:1, Washington, D.C., 1938.

The annual expenditures for white children are shown to be nearly four times that for Negro children in the same areas; the salaries paid to Negro teachers were consistently only half those for white teachers; more than this, average salaries for white teachers increased more in proportion than the salaries for Negro teachers.

The status of the education of Negroes may be compared with the education of whites in the same states as follows: (1) term shorter by one month or more per year; (2) children entering fifth grade, 20 per cent less; (3) total Negro enrollment in high-school grades, 11 per cent less; (4) children of high-school age in school, 25 per cent less; (5) children living three miles or more from school, 13 per cent more; (6) children transported to school at public expense, 17 per cent fewer; (7) money spent for transportation of pupils, approximately $175 for whites to every $1 for Negroes (rate of population 4 to 1); (8) average annual salaries of Negro rural teachers, $478 less; (9) annual expenditure per pupil, $44.31 for whites and $12.75 for Negroes; (10) average investment for plant and equipment for each white pupil, $157; for each Negro pupil, $37.[2]

These estimates, made some time ago, although no longer accurate in specific details, represent in general the difference in educational opportunity that still exists. Since 1930 there has been a marked increase in the percentage of Negro children five to seventeen years of age attending school. In 1940 estimates indicated that the percentage for Negroes almost equaled that for whites. The training and salaries of Negro teachers have also risen, although they are not yet on an equality with those of whites. A number of Southern states have the same salary schedules for all teachers who have equal training.

Although there has been a definite increase in the number of colleges and agriculture and engineering schools open to Negroes, these facilities are far below those for whites and far short of the need. The same may be said for vocational schools on the secondary level. The efforts of the U.S. Office of Education, of many other agencies, and of the states themselves, have focused attention upon these inequalities and are already resulting in many changes and improvements.

[2] CALIVER, AMBROSE, Outlook for Negro Education, *School Life*, 20:40, 41, October, 1934.

A "Magna Charta" of Negro education was adopted by the National Conference on Fundamental Problems in the Education of Negroes, Washington, D.C., May 9 to 12, 1934. A condensed statement of this is here given: [3]

FUNDAMENTALS IN THE EDUCATION OF NEGROES

Proposals Adopted by
The National Conference on Fundamental Problems
in the Education of Negroes
Washington, D.C., May 9–12, 1934

In view of the fact that in many States Negroes are forced by law to attend segregated schools which are almost invariably inadequately provided and maintained; and because of the inadequacy of these schools to serve the purpose of education in a democracy; and in order that equality of opportunity may be offered to all Americans; and in order that the Negro may meet effectively his obligations as an American citizen; and in order that America may have the benefit of those varied contributions possible only when the members of all races are allowed the fullest development; the following fundamentals in the education of Negroes are proposed by this Conference:

I. Ultimate Educational Objectives and Ideals

A. *Home Life.* Equal economic opportunity, and political and social justice for all, which will make possible the realization and maintenance of home and family life in keeping with American ideals and standards.

B. *Vocations.* Adequate provision for professional and vocational education, and guidance; conducted by properly trained persons; and varied according to individual interests and abilities.

C. *Citizenship.* Full participation in all phases of life in accordance with the highest ideals and practices of good citizenship.

D. *Recreation and Leisure.* Adequate provision for wholesome recreational activities, and adequate training for the better use of leisure time.

E. *Health.* Healthful living and working conditions, and adequate health service and health education.

F. *Character.* The ability and disposition to make wise choices in the various life situations.

[3] *School Life*, October, 1934. Back cover.

II. Immediate Educational Objectives and Ideals

A. Availability of Education. Schools and colleges available and accessible for all Negro children, adequate in length of term, number of teachers, curriculum offerings, equipment, and facilities.

B. Teachers and Teaching. Selection, training, compensation, tenure, and working conditions of teachers in keeping with the highest standards of professional growth and leadership in recognition of their outstanding importance in the education of Negro children and in the leadership of Negro life; and the acceptance of the responsibility by all teachers of Negro youth to teach the fundamental principles and issues underlying our economic and social order.

C. Financial Support. Adequate financial support of schools for Negro children, equitably distributed, and intelligently administered, with full recognition that there can be but one standard of adequacy.

D. Administration. Larger participation in the administration and control of schools by intelligent representatives of the people served; and curriculum differentiation and adaptation based on needs rather than on race.

E. Segregated Schools. Discouragement of and opposition to the extension of segregated schools.

In the foregoing statement of objectives and ideals, *the principle of the single standard should apply.*

3. *Occupational Situation.* The differences between the occupational distribution of Negro workers compared with white workers is, perhaps, one of the most striking and significant of all the differences noticed. Since we have as yet no comparable data of the occupational distribution of Negroes in 1940 we must go back to the 1930 Census. Table XXXV gives the comparative data for Negroes and for total population for 1920 and 1930. It shows that about two-thirds of the Negroes ten years of age and over were engaged in two groups: (1) agriculture and (2) domestic and personal service. Very few compared to the total population were found in (1) public service, (2) professional service, or (3) clerical service.

The changes in occupational distribution since 1940 have been very marked and very significant. Tables XXXVI and XXXVII give data furnished by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1940 and 1947.[4]

[4] *Post War Trends in Negro Employment, Monthly Labor Review,* Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 1947, 663–665.

Table XXXV. Percentage of Total Population and of Negroes 10 Years of Age and Over Engaged in Groups of Occupations, 1920, 1930 [1]

Occupational groups	1920		1930	
	Total	Negro	Total	Negro
Agriculture..............................	25.6	44.2	21.4	36.1
Forestry and fishing......................	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6
Extraction of minerals....................	2.6	1.5	2.0	1.4
Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits...	30.8	18.7	28.9	18.6
Transportation and commerce............	7.4	6.5	7.9	7.2
Trade.................................	10.2	2.9	12.5	3.3
Public service..........................	1.8	1.0	1.8	0.9
Professional service.....................	5.2	1.7	6.7	2.5
Domestic and personal service............	8.1	22.0	10.1	28.6
Clerical service.........................	7.5	0.8	8.2	0.7

[1] Data from Charles E. Hall, "Negroes in the United States, 1920–1932," Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1935.

Table XXXVI. Proportion of Negroes to Total Employment, 1940–1947

Occupation	Men		Women	
	1940	1947	1940	1947
Employed Negroes......................	8.6	9.5	13.8	13.2
Professional and semiprofessional.........	2.8	2.6	4.5	6.5
Proprietors, managers, and officials........	1.1	2.4	2.6	2.6
Clerical and sales......................	1.3	2.9	0.7	1.8
Craftsmen and foremen..................	2.6	3.3	2.2	?
Operatives............................	5.9	10.2	4.7	10.5
Domestic service.......................	60.2	64.3	46.6	55.0
Others...............................	16.5	22.7	12.7	23.2
Farmers and farm managers..............	12.4	11.5	30.4	23.1
Farm laborers.........................	21.0	16.4	62.0	13.8
Laborers, exclusive of farm..............	21.0	27.9	13.2	25.0

TABLE XXXVII. OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED NEGROES, APRIL, 1940, AND APRIL, 1947

Occupation	1940	1947
Farm	34.0	17.3
Nonfarm	66.0	82.7
Industrial	19.5	30.2
Craftsmen and foremen	4.2	4.9
Operatives	15.3	25.3
Proprietors, managers, and officials	1.6	2.8
Professional and semiprofessional	3.9	3.2
Clerical and sales	2.3	4.9
Service workers	52.2	39.6
Domestic workers	34.7	20.7
Laborers	20.5	19.3
Others	17.5	18.9

Quoting further from this report: "Between April, 1940, and April, 1947, employment of Negroes in civilian jobs was about a million, and almost three-quarters of a million were entering the armed forces.

"A significant shift from farm to factory was noticeable. The characteristic concentration of Negro workers in farming, domestic service, and in non-farm labor groups has been greatly modified since 1940. In 1940, 70 per cent of Negroes were in these occupations; in 1947 only 47 per cent. During the war a substantial number of non-skilled workers shifted to higher paying and more attractive jobs in industry and white-collar occupations. The movement of Negro men and women to factories, primarily as semi-skilled workers, was even greater. Reconversion to peace-time activities has brought no major down-grading in the occupational composition of Negro workers."

Many studies have revealed the lack of harmony between the expressed occupational choices of high-school and college Negro students and the opportunities for employment. An unpublished study by W. R. Banks in 1940 gave the following list of choices of occupations made by groups of Negro high-school students in Texas. Studies of the choices of Negro students in college show the same lack of harmony.

TABLE XXXVIII. CHOICE OF LIFEWORK BY NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS
IN TEXAS

Lifework	Number of Students
Teacher	586
Nurse	178
Dentist, pharmacist, and physician	128
Commercial course	123
Musician	93
Government service	52
Beauty culture	46
Mechanic	40
Seamstress	28
Agricultural demonstrator	27
Undertaker	25
Carpenter	24
Lawyer	18
Dirt farmer	17
Tailor	15
Engineer	14
Minister	9
Social worker	9
Newspaper work	8
Electrician	7
Cook	6
Domestic service	5
Painter	4
Milliner	4
Aviator	3
Brick mason	3

There was practically no relationship between the occupation of the parents and the vocational choice. The comments of Mr. Banks, who reported the study, are significant:

Teaching. There are today 3,000 people eligible for certificates to teach in the state and there are no vacancies in Texas.

Commercial Work. There is already an oversupply of stenographers and bookkeepers. Then, too, Negro business concerns are so few that this factor would limit the number of people to be employed who are trained in commercial work.

Nurses Training. There was a time when Negro nurses had an open field but today the white nurses in the South are fast crowding the Negro out of the profession. There are so many unemployed trained nurses in Texas that Prairie View College is reducing its enrollment in this course.

Seamstresses. This is and always will be a splendid field for a wide-awake young woman. Those who are competent and are employed in this occupation are making a good living.

Government Service Employee. This field has reached the saturation point. In fact the government is now letting out a great many of its employees.

Medicine and Law. A great many men who are in these professions now are in desperate straits and in many cases they are not able to pay office rents.

There are other fields, not so popular, that offer unlimited opportunities for choices. These fields in the sequences of the opportunities they offer are as follows: farmers, carpenters, tailors, shoe repairers, cooks, ministers, launderers, cafe workers, maids, painters, masons, plumbers, electricians, milliners, and domestic and general helpers.

There is some doubt that this picture of the Negro in Texas is, in all respects, characteristic of the condition of Negroes throughout the South. Studies made elsewhere indicate that there is a great lack of trained Negro nurses and doctors in Louisiana, Mississippi, and some other states; trained teachers are also much in demand in many sections.

The fact that a large percentage chose "upper-type" or "white-collar" jobs is quite consistent with the findings for white students. The change in this direction is, perhaps, more marked in the case of Negro youth than in that of whites. Slavery meant manual work, often entirely unskilled; it involved for the most part work on farms and plantations. The feeling of the whites in the South that manual labor was work for slaves and therefore degrading was shared by the Negro. It was natural for him to wish to get away from such work because it was a mark of inferiority. He has constantly striven to elevate himself by engaging in "higher" types of work. This is probably one reason for the citymard migration. The difficulty has been that this so-called "higher" work did not open up for him. Another reason for the tendency is the actual reduction in the number of simple manual jobs.

As these simple manual occupations become mechanized, white persons sought the jobs formerly held by Negroes, which, under changed conditions, demanded new skills and new knowledge and which paid higher wages. In many cases, Negroes were not pre-

pared to meet the new demands of these jobs and, in other cases, they were not employed if white persons were available. In addition to losing jobs formerly held, Negroes have found few opportunities in the new occupations resulting from recent technological progress.

The problem has been accentuated by (1) lack of education, (2) lack of educational opportunities and adaptation of education to needs, (3) lack of versatility and skill arising from limited occupational experience, and (4) attitude toward work.[5]

We thus see a tendency to constrict and contract occupational opportunities for Negroes. Many of the simple, unskilled, manual jobs have disappeared because of the introduction of machinery, and there has been no corresponding enlargement of opportunities in the higher occupations. Although Negroes are one-tenth of the population, they are generally disregarded in the administrative organization of government and of private institutions and agencies. This is not due to lack of ability. It has been proved again and again that there are few if any differences in ability that are due to race. The differences in ability among members of the white race are far greater than the differences between races. The discrimination is due to the traditional factors already discussed. Owing to racial prejudices, the Negro finds himself blocked from many occupations which he desires to enter and for which his ability well fits him.

4. *Social Distinctions.* It is also very apparent that there are many social inequalities due primarily to race or color. The Negro is now often barred from first-class hotels and restaurants, from banquets and other social occasions; he is denied membership in some athletic teams, especially those that require bodily contact, although many of the best athletes of the world are Negroes. He is denied membership in some national social and educational organizations.

III. RESULTS OF INEQUALITIES

Such inequalities cannot fail to have their effects upon the personalities, the hopes, and the ambitions of Negro youth. Many of these effects have been vividly portrayed in the studies

[5] CALIVER, AMBROSE, Vocational Education and Guidance for Negroes, U.S. *Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 38:1, Washington, D.C., 1938.

of the American Youth Commission. It is evident that the effects vary according to the type of situation confronted. In the rural districts the effects are different from those noted in cities; in the North from those in the South; in the case of the light-skinned as opposed to the Negro with dark skin. Some of the effects are well described by Frazier as follows.[6]

> Because of the competition with whites for jobs, and because of general unemployment, lower- and middle-class youth are concerned about the narrowing opportunities for work even in those occupations in which Negroes have heretofore made a living. Negro youth of all classes are agreed that Negroes do not have equal chances with whites for jobs, whatever their qualifications. Lower and middle-class youth have had considerable working experience which has brought them into contact with whites. Although youth of both classes (though middle-class youth to a lesser degree) are partially accommodated to their inferior status, their experiences with whites have bred distrust and animosity. In order to survive, many of them are convinced that they must adopt various techniques in order to conceal their real feelings and thereby propitiate the white man. The majority of lower-class youth look forward to employment in unskilled and laboring occupations, though a minority hope to rise above their present condition. But because of the lack of opportunities for employment, many lower-class youth are becoming convinced that illegal and antisocial means of making a living must be resorted to and are justified.
>
> Many of the middle-class youth are ambitious and hope to rise above their present status and enter upper-class occupations. Upper-class youth are, on the whole, self-confident about the future. The majority of them plan to enter the occupations in which upper-class Negroes have found employment and an outlet for their talents behind the walls of segregation. Upper-class youth do not feel that they have to use the same techniques as lower- and middle-class youth in order to survive. But, nevertheless, they are resentful of the many limitations under which they work and, where their fair complexion will permit, they sometimes use it as a means of breaking through the color line. Although it is not evident in our data, the lack of opportunity to compete with whites and assume adult responsibilities undoubtedly prevents Negro youth from maturing as they should under normal conditions.

[6] FRAZIER, E. FRANKLIN, "Negro Youth at the Crossways," pp. 166–167, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940. (*Used by special permission of the American Council on Education.*)

Although the differences in occupational and social opportunities between the Negro and the white are the cause of many frustrations and maladjustments, we must recognize that differences among Negroes themselves are also very important. The case studies of Negroes of different types and social position described in the American Youth Commission studies amply demonstrate that (1) the development of Negro personality is influenced by evaluations of color and other physical traits made by Negroes themselves on their own group influence, (2) social-class position and occupational status in the Negro society itself have decided effects upon Negro personality.

As we study impartially the many inequalities between Negroes and whites and the many arbitrary restrictions, occupational and social, placed upon Negroes, we cannot help being amazed that the effects upon Negro personality and character have not been greater. Perhaps it is due to a certain cheerfulness and optimism in the Negro character that makes it impossible to brood long over restrictions and discriminations. Major Moton was fond of saying that the reason why there were so few Negro suicides or anarchists was that when a Negro began to brood over his wrongs he fell asleep!

IV. GUIDANCE OF NEGRO YOUTH

1. *Lack of Guidance Facilities.* The provisions for the guidance of Negro youth have lagged far behind those for the whites, inadequate as these have been. The most important reasons for this lag are (1) the general lack of understanding and appreciation of the meaning and the value of guidance throughout the country; (2) the lack of equipment in library and other material; (3) the poorly trained and poorly paid teaching staff; (4) the very large percentage of elimination in Negro secondary schools resulting in a small number of Negro youth over fifteen years of age being in school; (5) although some schools have well-organized guidance activities, most secondary schools for Negroes have practically no guidance work.

2. *Methods of Guidance.* The methods of guidance in schools for Negroes are not different in any respect from those already described. It is, therefore, entirely unnecessary to repeat here the points made previously. Cumulative records, behavior descriptions, tests of all kinds, counseling, placement, follow-up,

all are as necessary for Negro youth as for whites. What differences in method there may be are due to differences in emphasis and differences in opportunities.

3. *Special Guidance Needs.* Many of the problems of Negro youth are very insistent and very difficult; they cannot be solved without help. They thus become of major importance and merit special attention.

a. Personal Problems. The problems of the young Negro in making his own personal adjustment to life are very difficult. He has become conscious that he is a member of a race which is denied certain rights and privileges, which is socially not accepted by whites, which has been considered inferior by the dominant group and which has often accepted this opinion as a fact, and to which has been denied certain educational and occupational opportunities. How shall he adjust himself to such an environment? Attitudes of hostility, while natural, are ineffective; desire to get even or to force himself upon an unwilling society only makes the situation worse. To give up and accept meekly the place that a white society has decreed is equally unsatisfactory. An adjustment that is really effective, by which the youth learns to be content *in* his situation but not *with* it, is so difficult that it cannot ordinarily be made without much personal assistance. The ones who try to help must themselves have worked out a satisfactory adjustment; if they have not, their own attitude will often be the cause of real maladjustment of the individual. Wise and effective guidance calls for unusual intelligence, insight, patience, and sympathy. Reality must be faced squarely and methods of adjustment worked out.

b. Educational Problems. The development of the powers and capacities of the individual is just as necessary for the Negro as for the white. This requires adequate provision for education. Many a Negro youth finds himself without adequate facilities for such education. Either schools and colleges are not available or he does not have enough money to enable him to attend. The problems of who should go, where to go, how to go, what one can do after graduation, all are serious problems and call for organized guidance facilities. Even more than is the case with unprivileged whites the Negro thinks of further education as a means of raising himself in the social scale. For this reason, many who have the necessary money insist on sending their chil-

dren to college regardless of whether it is the best thing for them to do. Many more, without funds, sacrifice everything to get into college. These ambitions are worthy, and ways must be provided by which Negro as well as white youth who can profit by college experience may be able to go to college. But by no means every young man or woman, whether he be white or Negro, can profit by going to college. Many serious maladjustments in life are caused by failure in college due to lack of ability. Others, just as serious, come after graduation because of the disillusionment resulting from being "all dressed up and nowhere to go": having the coveted college degree and not being allowed to do anything with it.

The problem of developing a worthy and satisfying life goal is extremely difficult for most Negro youth. The lack of relationship between the choice of occupation and the opportunities open, already discussed, indicates this very clearly. In spite of difficulties that seem insuperable, many Negroes have developed and achieved life goals that are socially worthy and very satisfying to themselves. Many more could do the same with wise and sympathetic guidance. The problem is to know how to stimulate the young Negro to stick to his area of ability and interest in the face of the problems of getting a job. He accepts limitations too readily; it is hard to get him to see his possibilities. The changes noted previously should be a help.

c. Occupational Problems. The problems connected with choosing an occupation, preparing for it, and getting a job are tied up with the problems of personality, individual development, and education. Without opportunity for the kind of education one needs, plans for a full and rich life are well-nigh hopeless; with little freedom of choice of occupation and with a lack of facilities for preparation for the job, the outlook for social service, individual development, and a satisfying life is very slim.

The data already presented indicate the extreme difficulty of occupational choice. The professional occupations requiring extensive training are difficult for Negroes to enter. Table XXXIX shows the number of Negro population to each Negro engaged in a certain profession.

Negro clergymen show the highest percentage to the population. These may be excluded from consideration because many

TABLE XXXIX. AVERAGE NUMBER OF NEGROES TO EACH NEGRO REPORTED IN SELECTED PROFESSIONS, 1930 [1]

	Clergymen	College presidents and professors	Dentists	Lawyers and judges	Physicians and surgeons	Trained nurses
North.......	423	12,747	2,605	3,141	1,582	1,231
South.......	495	4,796	11,731	21,472	4,286	2,567
West........	289	24,069	2,407	2,735	1,228	971

[1] Data from CHARLES E. HALL, "Negroes in the United States, 1920–1932," Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1935.

are not trained men. College presidents and professors might also be excluded because there are so few Negro colleges, comparatively. Dentists, lawyers, physicians, and trained nurses present an interesting picture. In every case the number of Negroes in the profession per Negro population is actually smaller in the South than in any other section. One Negro dentist to 11,731 Negroes; one lawyer to 21,472 Negroes; one physician to 4,286 Negroes; and one trained nurse to 2,567 Negroes. The Census of 1940 reveals the fact that in the seventeen Southern states and the District of Columbia the whites, in comparison with the Negroes, have four times as many dentists, four times as many social workers, five times as many physicians, thirteen times as many pharmacists, thirty-five times as many lawyers, and two hundred and two times as many engineers. It would seem that in the South there was a real opportunity. But when one considers the following factors, the opportunity does not look so good:

1. The facilities for the training of Negroes for these professions are very meager—not nearly enough to meet the demand.

2. The time and expense needed for preparation are far beyond the means of most Negroes.

3. The great majority of Negroes needing such services are so poor that they cannot afford to pay enough to provide a decent living for the workers.

4. Many Negroes prefer to go to a white dentist, lawyer, or physician when they can afford it. Either they have more confidence in them or going to them is thought to add social prestige.

Not only in the professions is racial discrimination seen, but also in most of the semiprofessional and skilled occupations. Even in the war emergency, when skilled men were needed so badly, the introduction of Negro workers into these occupations was very slow. Lack of suitable training is given as an excuse for not hiring the Negro, and lack of opportunity to get a job is the cause of lack of training. The inability of a Negro to become a member of a labor union is often the cause of the rejection by the employer of a trained, competent man; and the fact that there are few or no Negroes employed is given as the cause of refusal to accept them as members of the union.

Nevertheless, the recent changes in the educational and occupational opportunities for Negroes are a factor that should stimulate Negro youth to consider occupations that are more in keeping with their abilities and interests, and to prepare for them. The great employment gains made by Negroes during the war demonstrated to employers that ability bears no relation to color of the skin or to race. There have been great advances in fair employment practices throughout the country, brought about not only through legislation but also by voluntary action. The decision of the Supreme Court regarding educational facilities has forced reluctant states to provide better schools and colleges for Negroes. Probably the greatest gains in the area of education have come about through voluntary action. These gains are seen also in the case of other minority groups and give great hope that arbitrary restrictions of all kinds will be steadily reduced and finally eliminated.

The problems mentioned by counselors as the most baffling in their guidance work among Negroes are:

1. Problems involving the occupational outlook and possibilities for advancement in fields where Negroes are segregated and discriminated against because of race.

2. Problems involved in general placement—due partly to racial discrimination in the occupational fields.

3. Problems involving the kind of vocational education that should be recommended to individuals facing the above difficulties and prob-

lems due to the limited opportunities for securing proper training, especially where apprenticeships and experience training periods are required.

4. Problems of the relation of the school to the pupil. Does he feel that he belongs? Is he treated as a person, not a Negro? Is there rapport between teacher and pupil and counselor and pupil?

5. Problems connected with lack of understanding by teachers and counselors of the background of the pupil—of the feeling of rejection that often exists. In turn the pupil often rejects the help that is available.

6. Problems related to the patterns of learning and the attitudes toward school and school attendance.

7. Problems of physical and mental health.

8. Problems related to lack of courage and lack of ambition to attempt achievement in certain lines of activity that are somewhat restricted.

These are only a few of the problems of the Negro. Some Negroes have overcome all of these obstacles and have secured employment, or accepted the opportunity for advanced education and training; but for the majority, organized, competent help is needed. This help is given in several ways: (1) The facts regarding occupational opportunities and the difficulties in securing employment are carefully assembled and clearly presented to Negro youth. They know the situation and can prepare to meet the difficulties. (2) Individual employers are approached and very often are induced to employ a few really competent Negroes. (3) Negroes with proved ability are given training for jobs not now open in order that when the opportunities come there may be skilled workers available. (4) Wide publicity is given to studies revealing the lack of suitable opportunities for Negroes and the abilities and skills actually demonstrated by Negroes on the job. (5) The cooperation of governmental and private agencies is secured in disseminating information and in widening the opportunities for Negroes in every field.

4. *The Dade County Vocational Guidance Committee.* A good example of voluntary cooperation between public and private agencies in the guidance of Negro youth is the work of the Dade County (Miami, Florida) Vocational Guidance Com-

mittee.[7] In January, 1947, the Negro Service Council of Miami, an Urban League affiliate, appointed a committee known as the Dade County Vocational Guidance Committee. This committee was assigned the responsibility of studying the needs of Negro youth for vocational guidance and vocational training. The committee consists of thirty-five members, approximately one-third of whom are of the white race. The committee is self-perpetuating inasmuch as it elects members as the occasion and needs arise. At present (1950) its personnel includes the county school superintendent, the county assistant superintendent, the county director of guidance, principals, deans, teachers, ministers, doctors, Diversified Cooperative Training coordinators, the executive director of the Negro Service Council, and businessmen.

This committee has made a survey in three senior high schools of vocational interests of Negro youth as determining their occupational choice, and another of occupations that were available to Negroes in the community. Later the committee also assisted in a more detailed study made by the Dean of the Industrial School of the Florida A. and M. College. These surveys showed the need for a vocational-education program for Negro high-school students of Dade County. The data were used in making recommendations to school officials regarding the type of courses which should be offered. Shortly after these surveys were made two buildings were erected on the site of the Dorsey High School, a Negro high school in a rapidly growing part of Miami. Upon the recommendation of the committee, four shops were established in woodworking, radio, dry cleaning, and auto mechanics. Tailoring was subsequently added. In making the recommendations, the committee considered both the vocational interests and the opportunity for employment of Negro youth. These shops were first established for Negro veterans, but in the fall of 1948, they were made available for a day trades-training program for high-school students. The enrollment in these shops has increased from sixty veterans, at the beginning of the program, to a total present (1950) enrollment of 406, including day and evening students. The Dade County Board of Public Instruction has approved the building of a new $430,000.00 voca-

[7] From data furnished by Miss Nina E. McAdam, Director of Guidance, Public Schools, Dade County, Florida.

tional-high-school building for Negroes sometime during the next three-year period.

The committee also sponsored and promoted the establishment of a Diversified Cooperative Training program in two of the Negro high schools; a third coordinator will probably be added soon. The committee also advises directors of the various programs regarding employment of personnel when such advice is requested. The work of this committee has brought together members of both races in a friendly, cooperative fellowship that has done much to remove and relieve tensions that existed and has done much to promote wholesome relations. This is only one example of what is taking place in all parts of the country.

5. *The Need for Organized Guidance.* The need for organized guidance and for well-trained, competent Negro counselors is very great. In a number of cities, especially in the South, well-organized guidance departments have been set up and are very effective. Many social agencies are cooperating in helping schools in their guidance work for Negroes and in giving assistance directly to Negro youth. The help most needed in the guidance work of these agencies is as follows:

(a) Literature dealing with principles and methods of vocational guidance, and literature giving dependable general occupational information.

(b) Help in organizing and setting up vocational guidance programs.

(c) Help in opening up larger fields to Negroes which they cannot now enter because of race.

(d) Suitable reading material for persons seeking vocational guidance assistance.

(e) Descriptive material concerning successful experience in vocational guidance work among Negroes.

(f) Occupational information based upon careful study of the occupational and industrial status of Negroes—setting forth shifts and trends, the problems faced, and the opportunities offered in different lines of endeavor.

The guidance of Negro youth remains one of the major problems of guidance in this country.

REFERENCES

1. ATWOOD, J. HOWELL, DONALD W. WYATT, VINCENT J. DAVIS, and IRA D. WALKER: "Thus Be Their Destiny," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941. A study of the personality development of Negro youth in three communities: Milton, Pa., Greensboro, N.C., and Galesburg, Ill.

2. BOYKIN, LEANDER L.: How Can We Improve the Vocational Education and Guidance of Negro Youth? *Occupations*, 26:165–170, December, 1947. Describes the special needs of Negro youth and suggests methods of guidance.

3. DAVIS, ALLISON, and JOHN DOLLARD: "Children of Bondage," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940. A study of the personality development of Negro youth in the urban South. New Orleans and Natchez were the two cities studied.

4. FRAZIER, E. FRANKLIN: "Negro Youth at the Crossways," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940. A study of Negro youth in the borderline states. The interracial experiences of 268 Negro youth are analyzed.

5. GUZMAN, JESSIE PARKHURST, editor: "The Negro Handbook," Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Ala., 1947. Presents data on employment, population shifts, etc.

6. HALL, CHARLES E.: "Negroes in the United States, 1920–1932," U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1935. An analysis of the Census of 1930 relating to Negroes. The age distribution, marital condition, fertility, school attendance, and occupations of the Negro population. Comparative data for 1910 and 1920 are also given.

7. JOHNSON, CHARLES S.: "Growing Up in the Black Belt," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941. A study of the responses of Negro youth to the generally low economic conditions of the rural South and to their status as members of a minority racial group. Eight counties were chosen for the study. These were located in Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Tennessee.

8. KELLER, FRANKLIN J., editor: Vocational Guidance and Education, for Negroes, *Occupations*, 14:484–605, March, 1936. Addresses and papers of a conference held at Atlanta University in December, 1935, under the auspices of the National Occupational Conference.

9. MENEFEE, LOUISE A., and M. M. CHAMBERS: "American Youth, an Annotated Bibliography," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1938. Chapter 17 is entirely concerned with references on Negro youth.

10. PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION: "Higher Education for American Democracy," Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1946. Six vols. Volume I, "Establishing Goals," and Vol. II, "Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity," are especially helpful.

11. PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON CIVIL RIGHTS: "To Secure These Rights," Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1947.

12. REID, IRA DEA.: "In a Minor Key," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940. A brief over-all sketch of the problems facing Negro youth.

13. Ross, MALCOLM: "All Manner of Men," Reynal & Hitchcock, Inc., New York, 1948. A good discussion of racial questions.

14. SOUTHERLAND, ROBERT L.: "Color, Class and Personality," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1942. This volume reviews the chief findings of the other studies by the American Council on Education of Negro youth and suggests implications for our national life.

15. STEWART, MAXWELL: "The Negro in America," Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 95, Public Affairs Committee, New York, 1944. A brief statement of conditions.

16. WARNER, W. LLOYD, BUFORD H. JUNKER, and WALTER A. ADAMS: "Color and Human Nature: Negro Personality Development in a Northern City," American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1941. The effect upon Negro personality of environment in a city of the North.

17. WEAVER, ROBERT C.: "Labor, a National Problem," Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1946. Analyzes factors resulting in racial discrimination and describes methods for improving conditions.

18. YOUNG, MARSCHAL-NEIL ELLISON: Some Sociological Aspects of Vocational Guidance of Negro Children, *Journal of Negro Education*, 15:21–30, Winter, 1946. Summary of a doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1947.

GUIDANCE FOR INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT
AND FOR LEISURE TIME

The point of view consistently maintained throughout this discussion is that guidance is a unified process dealing with the individual as a whole. Fundamentally, there can be no divisions, no separate kinds of guidance. The separation in the preceding four chapters has been for the purposes of discussion and was not intended to be applied to desirable practices of guidance.

However, since it is helpful, at least for discussion, to treat educational guidance and vocational guidance separately, it may be found equally desirable to discuss other aspects of the guidance process separately. There are many of these aspects that might with profit be chosen for separate consideration. Rather arbitrarily we have chosen two which at present seem to need emphasis. These are guidance for individual development and guidance for leisure time.

I. GUIDANCE FOR INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT

1. *Meaning of Guidance for Individual Development.* The term "guidance of individual development" may seem inappropriate and superfluous, for the purpose of all guidance and of all education is the development of the individual. There is, however, a very definite need for special consideration of guidance for the development of the individual not merely as a student, a worker, a citizen, or a member of a family, but as a growing, developing personality who is attempting to work out an integrated pattern of life in which his activities as student, worker, citizen, and member of a family will each contribute to his life as an integrated person. It is based upon the democratic concept of the worth of the individual as an individual. It rejects the idea that a man's occupation is all there is to life, that all his activities must be centered around his job, that being all-absorbed in his job is the ideal to be attained. It also is op-

posed to the idea that to the student the school with its curriculum is the all-important thing. Both occupation and school are of extreme importance but they are not ends in themselves; they are merely means to a larger, more important end for each individual. This point of view, although generally accepted by nearly everyone as an ideal, is in actual practice often forgotten. There is real danger that the occupation may become an end in itself, that the real objectives of life may be either forgotten or neglected in such absorption in the occupation as is recommended so frequently by leaders. This does not mean that the job and the school are unimportant or that one should deliberately do less than his best at study or at work; it does mean that there must be a deeper meaning in life, an objective that may serve to unify and integrate all activities of the individual into a life that may be properly called worthy of the high calling of a human being, of a man. Any other point of view is likely to result in lopsided development, misshapen personality, and general unhappiness.

2. Aims of Guidance for Individual Development. The general aims of personal guidance are as follows:

1. To assist the individual gradually to develop life goals that are socially desirable and individually satisfying.

2. To help him plan his life so that these goals may be attained and to integrate his activities with reference to these goals.

3. To help him grow consistently in ability to adjust himself creatively to his developing life goals, to recognize his limitations and his strengths, and to build out of his own peculiar powers and interests an enriched and resourceful personality.

4. To assist the individual to grow consistently in ability to live with others so effectively that he may promote their development and his own worthy purposes, that he may experience the satisfactions that come from association with different kinds of people, and that he may be a partner with those who seek to provide a better society in which to make a living and to live.

5. To help him grow in self-directive ability.

3. Methods of Guidance with Relation to Life Goals. The methods of guidance with relation to life goals do not differ essentially from other methods used. Life goals are developed very gradually and call for a unified and continuous program from the elementary school through college and university. In

the secondary school these goals begin to emerge as fairly well developed patterns; in college they become, for most students, still further developed. The cumulative record should be so arranged that evidences of these patterns would appear so that guidance may be more effective. Intimate, continuous contact with each individual by teachers and counselors is indispensable, and group conferences are found to be especially important.

The following implications of the concept of life goals may be helpful: [1]

1. The life of any individual should be considered as an organic whole, not as a combination of more or less unrelated and often conflicting elements.

2. In considering the usefulness, effectiveness, or desirability of any position or aspect of life, or of any job, the entire pattern of life should be considered, not merely one segment of it. We should take into consideration how the job he now has or is hoping to get contributes to the attainment of the central goal, not as the entire element or necessarily the most important element, but as one of the elements that support, complement, and enhance one another as contributory elements.

For many persons their vocational activities occupy a large part of life in time, in energy, and, it may be, in interest. These activities often bring real satisfaction and joy to the individual. But they are not the whole of life, though they may furnish the chief avenue through which the central goal is realized. However, in order to find whether a given individual has a central goal, other aspects of his life *must be considered—his home life, his recreational life, his activities* as a citizen, as a member of a club or a church. We must ask: Is the same central goal or purpose shown in these activities?

Many occupations are of such a nature as to make difficult or impossible the complete, or even the chief, expression in them of one's central life purpose. Occupational activities to many are incidental; the main avenue for the expression of their central purpose may be the home, the avocation, civic life, the Church, or social activities. The central purpose should, of course, be shown in the occupation, but this segment no longer has the position of central importance.

3. The occupation cannot in itself furnish a satisfactory central purpose or goal; the central or life purpose lies deeper. For any in-

[1] JONES, ARTHUR J., and HAROLD C. HAND, "Guidance and Purposive Living," in "Guidance in Educational Institutions," Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, pp. 12–14, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938.

dividual, the occupation is only one of many ways by which his central purpose is realized and revealed. Guidance that relates only to occupations can never be effective or wholly satisfactory, because it includes only one segment of the life. Joy in the activities of an occupation cannot be a wholly satisfactory purpose in the selection of a life work, because it furnishes not itself, guiding principle for the selection of other activities in life that are nonoccupational.

4. There is for most of us no one best avenue through which the central goal may be realized, no one and only position in life, occupation, or job that is predetermined; any one of a number of different avenues may be equally effective and satisfactory. The controlling element is the central purpose; the avenue through which this is realized will be influenced by many elements in our environment.

5. One does not usually need to change his job or position in life in order to make it useful in achieving his central goal. While careful choice of job is of great importance, there is some opportunity in most positions for such personal adjustment as will make possible the use of the occupation or other activity in the attainment of the central purpose. . . .

6. Within certain limits, one may so change the situation in which he is placed (his job, his home, his civic life) as to increase its effectiveness as an agent or element that contributes to the attainment of his central goal. Life is full of illustrations of men who have so interpreted their jobs and governed their activities as to make them avenues through which they could contribute to human welfare. Shoemakers, carpenters, plumbers, potters, violin makers, as well as physicians, lawyers, and social workers constantly remind us that any job that is not in itself antisocial may be undertaken or used in such a way as to contribute to the general welfare when this is the central purpose of one's life.

7. Central goals do not emerge full-fledged and complete at some particular time; they develop gradually out of life needs and experiences. Teachers and other guidance workers should not be too hasty in their attempts to have young people formulate their central goals. Growth toward the formulation of goals must be gradual; early formulation will tend to crystallize and fix incomplete and unsatisfactory goals.

8. The school curriculum should be so conceived and administered as to give constant experience and assistance in the formulation of objectives and goals by the students themselves and in the acceptance of these goals by them as bases of their work. While these goals are not central goals, the practice will help students in the formulation of central goals.

4. General Methods of Guidance for Individual Development.
The following adaptations from the pamphlet, "Your Life in the Making,"[2] are given as suggestions that have been found valuable.

1. Determine to be at your best. What we *are* measures our worth to ourselves and to others. Not money, or fame, or power; but *sincerity*, joy in life, intelligence, friendliness, resourcefulness, *strength of purpose*, gracious manners, beauty of spirit, generosity, dependability, helpfulness, and nobility of conduct—these are the real measures of what one is.

2. Begin where you are. Know yourself. Rise above your failures. Excellence cannot be reached by merely looking for defects. It cannot be built by the wrecking crew. It requires energy, good will, initiative, planning.

3. Make a plan. Look at your life as a whole. Think of your expected seventy years in ten-year periods. Revise your plan as conditions change. Careful and constant planning is the way to freedom.

4. Keep yourself fit. Determine to keep yourself as fit and strong as possible.

5. Develop your skills. Choose one skill after another and work at each until you attain excellence and establish habit.

6. Remember the importance of a happy home life. In your daily thoughts and plans seek to build up and enrich family life, your own and others'.

7. Make worthy friends. Wide friendships enrich character. Choose your friends with care. Prefer people for what they are, not what they have.

8. Earn your own way.

9. Be loyal to your country.

10. Enjoy your life. Happiness is not a matter of wealth or station. It is a matter of temperament and will. Do something to help another. Take satisfaction in the goodness and kindness that you see in people about you. Notice the beauties of nature. Enjoy the flowers. Listen to the birds. Look up at the sky and the stars.

11. Hold fast to your ideals. The quality of your ideals will determine the excellence of your achievement.

12. Make your influence count. Make some effort each day to be helpful. Your influence will grow with use, and your own sense of direction and of values will grow thereby.

[2] Morgan, Joy Elmer, "Your Life in the Making," National Education Association, *Personal Growth Leaflet*, No. 1, Washington, D.C.

13. Keep on learning. The mind is like a muscle. It grows strong with use.

II. LEISURE-TIME GUIDANCE

Guidance for leisure time is closely related to personal guidance but is not entirely synonymous with it. This problem is continually increasing in importance and deserves special consideration.

A. PLACE OF LEISURE IN SOCIETY

1. *Meaning of Leisure.* Although the conception of leisure has varied in some respects from time to time, it has always carried with it the idea of free time, that is, spare time at one's disposal. It is usually interpreted as time not spent on the activities of making a living—one's occupation—or on the activities concerned with keeping alive or maintaining one's physical efficiency—eating, sleeping, and ordinary care of the body. It is not synonymous with idleness nor with avocations or hobbies, nor with recreations, nor with all of these. These are merely ways of employing leisure time. It is often difficult to determine when the activities of sleeping, eating, and care of the body cease to be concerned with keeping alive and become leisure-time activities. It is also sometimes difficult to distinguish between one's vocational and one's avocational activities. However, the distinction can, in most cases, be made with sufficient definiteness to give a clear concept.

2. *Leisure Time and Human Needs.* The amount of leisure time one has is dependent upon the relationship between one's needs and the time it takes to supply these needs. Leisure time may be increased either by decreasing needs or by increasing the power to supply the needs. Higher animals as well as uncivilized human beings have always had some leisure time; this is because their needs were simple and ordinarily fairly easily satisfied. Although human needs have a way of increasing with increased power to satisfy them, as civilization has advanced, human ingenuity has devised ways of tremendously increasing the power to satisfy these needs. This has been done by multiplying the power of each man to produce. In general, this has been effected in two ways: (1) by commandeering the man power of many to meet the needs of the few—this is slavery, whether found in Egypt or in the factories and sweat shops of

modern America; (2) by devices for increasing the productive power of each man. These consist of machines and improved techniques of work. Each of these methods is still being used in modern society.

3. *Leisure Time and a Privileged Class.* Athenian civilization was based upon a substratum of slavery. This produced a class of citizens largely or entirely free from the necessity of making a living, a leisure class that provided amply for its needs by commandeering the power of many men. The rich and powerful of all ages have done the same. Money, power, have been used to exploit the many for the benefit of the few. It is probably inherent in the modern profit-making motive. In such an order, human beings are looked upon as machines, each one representing so many energy units capable of producing goods that will increase the ability of the owner, the capitalist, the employer to satisfy his needs.

Such privileged classes have been present in all countries at all times. They were seen in Egypt, Athens, Rome, throughout Europe in feudal times, in England, in the American South, and everywhere in our present-day society. On the whole, this class has constituted the aristocracy and has represented the ideal toward which the underprivileged class has looked with longing eyes and for which it has striven with eager zeal.

4. *Leisure Time and the Working Classes.* The inevitable background of this picture of the privileged class has been toiling, sweating, grunting human beings, working from daylight to dark, year in and year out.

> "Each day, all day" (these poor folks say),
> "In the same old year-long, drear-long way,
> We weave in the mills and heave in the kilns,
> We sieve mine-meshes under the hills,
> And thieve much gold from the Devil's bank tills,
> To relieve, O God, what manner of ills?—
> The beasts, they hunger, and eat, and die;
> And so do we, and the world's a sty;
> Hush, fellow-swine: why nuzzle and cry?" [3]

Leisure time for such slaves, whether owned by masters or employed by hard-driving capitalists, is very different from that

[3] LANIER, SIDNEY, *The Symphony,* p. 60, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1894. (*Quoted by permission of the publisher.*)

of the privileged class. It consists, at best, of breathing spaces between hours or days of toil. It may be time snatched surreptitiously from the regular work times, when the foreman is not looking, or rare holidays wisely prescribed by the church, or even enforced idleness due to inclement weather or to strikes and unemployment. In any case, it is more or less fortuitous and unplanned.

5. _Leisure Time in Modern Society_. It is a singular thing that in America today, although we have a privileged class that has wealth enough to buy all the luxuries of the world, far beyond the dreams of the richest man in ancient Athens, we have practically no leisure class, at least none that is at all comparable to the class of freeborn wealthy citizens of Athens, to the powerful barons of feudal times, or to the leisured gentlemen of England in the time of Locke. Many of our wealthy men are the busiest men we have; they have little or no leisure time. The reason for this is that in America we have made a god of work. We think in terms of work, of power, of money. This is an outgrowth of our beginnings and our surroundings. The early settlers found life in the new country unexpectedly severe. The soil was poor, the Indians hostile, and the climate bleak and cold. It was only by the most rigorous effort of everyone that life itself could be sustained. The gentlemen who first came to Virginia found the transition from a life of comparative leisure in England to that of hard, persistent, personal labor difficult indeed. This bitter struggle for bare existence inevitably developed in the early settlers the feeling that work was a virtue and idleness a sin. Out of this grim struggle developed the maxims "He who will not work shall not eat" and "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do." Busyness and thrift became cardinal virtues, very close to religion if not actually synonymous with it. These ideals are strongly embedded in the American mind and color much of our thinking. In a rapidly expanding country, where production and supply lag behind needs, emphasis is naturally placed upon increased production and efficiency of man power. "He who makes two blades of grass grow where one did before" is hailed as a public benefactor. "To buy more land, to plant more corn, to feed more hogs, to get more money, to buy more land," in endless repetition, becomes the absorbing occupation of everyone. He who has no money, dreams and works to get

money enough to begin the ceaseless round; he who has wealth works to get more money, more power. Joy and satisfaction come with the effort; everything else is forgotten.

This idea has so permeated society that the idle rich are considered a menace, the wandering hobo little better than a criminal; idleness is considered the same as laziness, and both are sins against society. Laws have actually been proposed in several states making idleness a misdemeanor.

Into this atmosphere of struggle and strain, of eternal striving for wealth and power, of the hope of personal profit, of the exaltation of work and efficiency, have recently come two disturbing elements. First, the conviction that no matter how long and how effectively they work, many men never can by their own efforts accumulate enough wealth to secure a competence or often even a fair living. Under our present system, the distribution of wealth will always be uneven. A living income can be assured to everyone only through a social order that definitely plans for such a result. Under our present system, the dream of the average man for a living wage is a myth. Second, production has been so speeded up by laborsaving machines and by improved techniques that enough goods can be produced to provide a relatively high standard of living for everyone by a working week of thirty hours or less. This means not only that men will not need to work long hours at a stretch in order to provide the necessities of life, but that there will not be enough work to keep them busy for more than three hours a day. We are thus suddenly confronted with the impossibility of the fulfillment of our dreams of obtaining an adequate standard of living by our own efforts and at the same time with the certainty that we shall have thrust upon us five or six hours a day that cannot be spent in the activities of one's vocation. The old standard of values is totally inadequate to deal with such a situation. Leisure time is no longer merely a breathing space between hours of work; it equals or exceeds the time spent upon one's vocation. The prevailing idea that one should spend the major part of his time in work on his vocation breaks down completely. If anyone attempts to do this, he deprives others of the possibility of work. Work, then, no longer can always be considered a virtue; it may even become a crime. As a result of these changed economic and social conditions, we see rapidly developing a leisure

class; not a privileged wealthy class, but a class composed of the entire group of unskilled, semiskilled, and skilled workers, the vast majority of the entire population. "We are indeed witnessing the movement of a whole society into a way of life that hitherto has been reserved for a special privileged class." [4] Whether the same shortening of the hours of labor will apply to professional workers remains to be seen. This problem of leisure time or nonoccupational time is possibly the greatest single problem education has to face today.

B. FUNCTIONS OF LEISURE

1. *Leisure as Related to Increased Production.* The function of leisure is largely determined by the kind and amount of free time and by the ideals of the age. When leisure time is merely short breathing spaces between long periods of sustained labor, its function has usually been thought of as "re-creation," building the worker up so that he can do his work efficiently after the breathing spell. When the ideal is efficiency of work, increased production, more power, more wealth, the function of leisure is considered the same—to increase the productive power of the worker. The purpose behind the measures taken by many employers to secure better homes for their employees, better working conditions, rest rooms, recreations, etc., is a better standard of production. It is good business. The Roman emperors provided holidays for the populace, great gladiatorial combats, thrilling spectacles, sports of all kinds merely to keep the common people satisfied with their lot. It was good business. We are often admonished to choose those activities for our leisure time that will increase our efficiency on the job. Here, the function of leisure is considered to be that of increasing the efficiency of production.

2. *Leisure as Related to Increased Consumption.* A variation of the same fundamental idea is commonly seen in the educational literature of the day. We are faced with great potential, if not actual, overproduction or underconsumption. One method of starting us on the road to recovery is to increase consumption. Consequently, some educators and economists think of leisure as a method of increasing consumption and thus keeping the wheels

---

[4] OVERSTREET, H. A., "We Move in New Directions," p. 230, W. W. Norton & Company, New York, 1933.

of industry moving, that is, increasing the amount of work. Both of these ideas of the function of leisure are founded upon the same notion—the sacredness of work, of keeping busy, of increasing wealth and power.

3. *Leisure as Related to Human Development.* The functions of leisure described above fail to touch the fundamental purpose of all education, of all society—the development of the individual. This purpose is well expressed by James Truslow Adams.

> It is not a dream of motorcars and high wages merely but a dream of a social order in which each man and each woman shall be able to attain to the fullest stature of which they are innately capable, and be recognized by others for what they are, regardless of the fortuitous circumstances of birth or position.[5]

To quote again from this stimulating discussion by Adams:

> If we are to regard man merely as a producer and consumer, then the more ruthlessly efficient big business is the better. Many of the goods consumed doubtless make man healthier, happier, and better even on the basis of a high scale of human values. But if we think of him as a human being primarily, and only incidentally as a consumer, then we have to consider what values are best or most satisfying for him as a human being. We can attempt to regulate business for him not as a consumer but as a man, with many needs and desires with which he has nothing to do as a consumer. Our point of view will shift from efficiency and statistics to human nature.[6]

4. *Leisure of a Privileged Class.* The leisure of the privileged class of wealthy Athenian citizens, of the great feudal barons, and of the class of gentlemen was of a very different sort from that of the slaves and laborers who made their leisure possible and had a different function. Being freed from the necessity for work and having ample goods, they could imagine no point in using up leisure time for speeding up production or increasing consumption; practically all of their time was free time and could be used as they chose. Their problem was a way of life, and the purpose of this way of life was the development of a certain type of individual. This is, perhaps, most clearly seen in Athens at the time of Pericles. The dominating purpose of the wealthy

[5] ADAMS, JAMES TRUSLOW, "The Epic of America," p. 404, Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1931.

[6] *Ibid.,* p. 408.

class of Athenian citizens was the development of the well-rounded personality. For this purpose, their schools, their sports, their theaters, and their adult activities were directed. With them sports were not primarily for amusement or recreation; they were a very important part of that training whose purpose was to develop the man of action and of wisdom, the beautiful and the good. As music, which included reading, literature, and history as well as music, was for the development of a beautiful soul, so gymnastics was for the development of a beautiful body. Each contributed to the perfected man. It is small wonder that the conception of beauty reached its highest development in the culture of that time. Their lives were devoted to the appreciation of beauty in all its forms, to the creation of beauty, to the achievement of beauty.

It was also a duty of the citizen to serve the state. In the constitution of Athens, all the highest offices were reserved for the wealthiest class of citizens. For this reason, it was necessary for them to give a large share of their time to affairs of state, to service to the public. The same thing was true to a greater or less extent of the feudal barons and the gentleman class. Whenever, up to modern times, we discover a leisure class, we find them using their time for the development of a certain type of individual. In this development, appreciation, creation, service are large elements.

5. *Function of Leisure Today.* It is true that these same elements are found in the midst of our profit-making, power-seeking, efficiency-mad America, but the dominant note is still production, consumption, the exaltation of work, of power, of wealth. If we are to meet the problem presented to us by our enforced leisure, if we are to set up the machinery by which we are to realize "the dream of America," it is clear that we must shift our point of view of the function of leisure from that of increasing production and consumption to that of the fullest development of the individual; this means that the dominating function of leisure cannot continue to be merely recreation for further work and increase in consumption of goods, but must center upon appreciation, creation, service, for it is by such means that the development of the individual may be secured.

C. METHODS OF GUIDANCE FOR LEISURE TIME

Many problems arise in connection with leisure time. Some of these are given on pages 30 and 59. In general, they center around choice of leisure-time activities, choice of methods of training for such activities, and adjustment to leisure-time activities.

1. *Types of Leisure-time Activities.* Leisure-time activities comprise the entire range of human endeavor, for what is vocational activity to one person may be a leisure-time activity to another. In general, they may be said to include hobbies, avocations, sports and recreation, reading, music, arts and crafts, and the entire range of creative work. They also involve forms of nonvocational public and personal service.

These may, for general purposes of discussion, be grouped under four heads: (1) escape activities, (2) general culture or appreciation activities, (3) creative activities, and (4) service activities. These are not entirely distinct but often merge into one another. They represent, however, certain large differences in purpose or objective.

2. *Escape Activities.* Escape activities are those engaged in as a way of release from the daily round of labor; they are calculated to make one forget; they must, therefore, be absorbing and as different as possible from the activities of one's vocation. They are, in a real sense, often recreative, for they use muscles and nerve centers not used in the usual daily tasks. By far the great majority of men and women employ their leisure time in ways that are purely or largely escape activities. They read detective stories, romantic novels, yellow-sheet sensational news, the sport page; they go to theaters and movies that appeal to the eye and the ear, that catch and hold one's absorbed attention, with no appeal to the brain; they attend baseball, football, basketball, polo, ice hockey, and other more or less professionalized sports that grip the attention and stir one's emotions to the point of forgetfulness; they spend evening after evening at bridge, where conversation is taboo and the entire energy of the players given up to the play; they play tennis, handball, polo, golf, and do it as strenuously and absorbingly as they work. They travel and, in order to get the most out of it, they join a tourist party

where every moment is planned. They try to visit as many cities as possible in a six weeks' tour and see all of the Louvre in three hours. On shipboard, the thoughtful steward plans every moment of the time, in deck sports, dances, special parties, or bridge. Truly, "at work man is sublime; at leisure he is ridiculous."

3. *General Cultural and Appreciation Activities.* General cultural and appreciation activities are those engaged in where the purpose is not mere escape but the broadening of the outlook, widening of the horizon, keeping in touch with world movements, with scientific developments, the appreciation of music, art, and literature, and of all that is high and noble in life; the maintaining and deepening of one's intellectual, moral, and spiritual nature. This involves a different type of reading from the escape literature, a different type of theater or music, a differently planned travel tour; it involves social contacts where the art of conversation is not forgotten, where there is give and take of ideas and stimulation to real thinking. It involves cessation from haste and strenuous struggle, taking time to stretch oneself, to think, to enjoy, to appreciate.

> What is this life if, full of care,
> We have no time to stand and stare.
>
> No time to stand beneath the boughs
> And stare as long as sheep or cows.
>
> No time to see, when woods we pass,
> Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass.
>
> No time to see, in broad daylight,
> Streams full of stars, like skies at night.
>
> No time to turn at Beauty's glance,
> And watch her feet, how they can dance.
>
> No time to wait till her mouth can
> Enrich that smile her eyes began.
>
> A poor life this if, full of care,
> We have no time to stand and stare.[7]

[7] Davies, W. H., Leisure, from "Collected Poems," Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1922. (*Used by permission of the publishers.*)

4. *Creative Activities.* Creative activities are those where one does not sit more or less passively and enjoy the creations of another but where one himself creates. The field of such activities is very wide and offers opportunity for everyone. Under this category would come the production of music, the actual composition of music, painting, sculpture, working in wood, metal, and other materials, cooking, dressmaking, embroidery, writing, and any other activity in which one is not merely a spectator but actually produces something, whether it is intrinsically valuable or not.

5. *Service Activities.* Finally, there are the service activities or things done for others. These may take the form of personal service for a member of the family or for a friend; they may include the larger service activities of citizenship, for city, state, nation, and the world; they would also include activities for various clubs and other social groups. Many creative activities may also become service activities.

6. *Relative Place of Type of Activities.* Escape activities have a legitimate place in leisure time, but they cannot, as at present, absorb the major part of such time if the complete development of the individual is to be secured and if we are to meet successfully the problem of a large extension of enforced leisure time. Commercialized recreation is largely given over to this type of activity, and there is, therefore, real need for definite attention to and planning for the other more constructive forms of leisure-time activity.

7. *Necessity for Planned Activities.* Leisure-time activities should be planned as definitely and as intelligently as those of one's vocation. Careful planning is even more necessary, because the activities of one's vocation are usually quite definitely determined, and all the individual has to do is to conform to this predetermined pattern.

8. *Place of the Curriculum.* Intelligent choice and wise planning of leisure-time activities are dependent upon knowledge of the different types of such activities, skill in their use, and real interest and desire to participate in them. If this is true, the curriculum of the elementary and the secondary school has an important function in leisure-time guidance. Through the curriculum are developed the skills in reading, writing, art, music, home economics, and industrial art that are absolutely essential

to appreciation and to creation; upon this we must largely rely for the development of interest in such activities and desire to participate in them. Before this work can be effectively done, there must be a radical reorganization in our curriculum; possibly most important still, there must be a radical change in the attitude of many of our superintendents, principals, and teachers. However, it should, in all justice, be said that our schools are much more conscious of the problem than are the patrons of the schools, and have organized some very effective work in art, music, industrial art, and home economics that goes far toward meeting the problem. The difficulty is to persuade the taxpaying public and school boards that such school activities are essential and not fads and frills, the first to be eliminated when the financial situation becomes acute. Courses in civics, history, general science, English, and geography are being organized in such a way as to help the pupil to get the facts of modern social, civic, and economic life that are important for him and to develop in him interests and attitudes that will really function in his life both in the school and outside it.

9. *Place of the Student Activities Program.* While closely related to the organized curriculum, the various forms of student clubs and activities and the general school life contribute much to preparation for choice of leisure-time activities. Student participation in the government of the school affords splendid opportunity for acquiring facts about forms of government and for developing right attitudes toward service activities, especially those related to citizenship. The best preparation for civic responsibility in later life is participation in the duties connected with the social group with which one is now connected. The most important of these, for the student, is the school. If students feel that the responsibility for the government of the school rests partly upon them, they will assume a very different attitude toward the life of the school and toward discipline. One of the reasons why so-called "student" government is not more helpful in civic guidance is that it is often student government in name only. Policies are really decided by the principal, and the officers of the organization are mere puppets moving at his behest.

be a cooperative matter, definite responsibility being delegated to the students for other matters. Problems that arise in connection with the government of the school afford splendid material for group discussions, assembly talks, home-room conferences, and individual conferences between students and principal or teacher.

The student activities program and the general school life are important factors in the acquiring of facts, in the development of skills and attitudes that are very useful in adjustment to others, and in general social relationships. Such attainments are vital in types of leisure-time activities such as appreciation and service activities. The most of one's life is concerned directly with other people, and individual success and happiness are dependent in large measure upon the way in which one gets along with others. Individuals differ by nature very greatly in their power to adapt themselves to social situations; for some, the adaptation is very easy; for others, it is extremely difficult; for all, it is largely a matter of training. Everyone needs guidance in social adjustments no matter from what sort of home he may come and no matter how well he may be endowed by nature.

The necessity for definite assistance in manners is well stated by Edgar A. Guest: [8]

Why is it some people are liked and others greatly disliked? It is not altogether a question of honesty and fair dealing. Apparently it has nothing to do with respectability, for many respectable people are not popular. It seems to me to be wholly a matter of manners. . . .

Analyzing the various people who seem always to annoy me and "get on my nerves" is not difficult. Some of them are boastful. . . .

There are others who are flagrantly selfish in little things. They are openly bad mannered. . . .

Another type I don't like is simply malicious. Persons of this class have bitter tongues and cruel minds. Their jests always carry a sting. . . .

The two-faced man or woman is difficult to endure. This type leaves a trail of broken confidences behind it. . . .

Churlish people are unpopular everywhere. So are people filthy both of person and of speech. . . .

The art of making friends lies in knowing how to avoid these dangers. It seems to me that he who would properly equip his boy or

[8] GUEST, EDGAR A., The Art of Making Friends, *American Magazine*, 106:7–9, 141–143, November, 1928.

girl for life in this world should begin early with the teaching of manners. . . .

The man who has many friends has been a friend to many. He has understood the needs of many. He has known, without being told, that other people like to have attention shown to them, and he has shown that attention graciously and gracefully. He has slighted no man needlessly. He has walked the earth with all men as one of them. He has understood the need of all for laughter. The fellowship of joy and grief has been an open book to him. The chances are he has suffered sorrow, and he knows how deeply it cuts, and he remembers when another is in trouble.

Manners, then, are of very great importance, and manners can be learned. In our cosmopolitan high schools, students need help; there are many social customs of which they are entirely ignorant. Their homes do not give help; someone must. Help is given in classes set apart for this special purpose, in the definite provision for social occasions in the school, in parliamentary procedure in student assemblies, and in club and class meetings and private conferences. Some schools utilize the entire school life for purposes of social guidance. Formal and informal teas are given to accustom students to such occasions and to train them in conduct proper to the occasion; parents' receptions are organized with the help of students; occasions are made for introductions, formal and informal dances and parties are employed, invitations are issued, letters of acceptance or of regret are sent. These are all organized and administered with the definite purpose of giving students the most practical help and training in methods of social conduct and forms of social usage. Such questions are often considered in home-room discussions. Several very helpful manuals on manners have been written and are now being used in the schools. The booklet for freshmen often published frequently contains valuable suggestions on what to do and what not to do. Some of these, especially those in use in colleges, place quite unnecessary restrictions upon the activities of the freshmen, but on the whole they are very helpful devices.

Student clubs often serve to develop or to deepen interest in desirable activities that develop into hobbies or avocations in later life and function as leisure-time activities, cultural and appreciative, creative, and service.

The physical education program is directed partly toward the

development of skills in certain games, group and individual, and partly toward the development of an interest and desire to continue such participation after one's school life is over. If this work is to become really effective, studies should be conducted that will show the effect that certain forms of recreation have upon the physical and mental life and the forms that are best adapted to meet the needs of different types of people. We need to examine our school program of athletics and student clubs to determine what ones will be helpful in after-school life. We already have some data on this point. We know, for example, that the great majority of people, after they leave school, will not play football, baseball, hockey, or basketball. They are far more likely to play golf, tennis, or volleyball, or to swim, go hiking, or dance. Group play is valuable in many ways and should not be neglected, but directors of physical education are coming to feel that such games should not crowd out forms of recreation in which most people will engage after they leave school. Definite provision should be made in school for the development of an interest in these forms of sport.

10. *Adelphi Academy Program.* Many schools are organizing their informal activities in such a way as to prepare their students for leisure time. Adelphi Academy in Brooklyn, N.Y., had a very interesting plan: [9]

This project affects the six-year-old boys and girls in the primary department as well as all pupils in the high-school department. The little children, following their luncheon, lie down on cots for relaxation for half an hour. There are other shorter periods of rest throughout the morning.

The junior and high-school pupils have their luncheon either at long tables or "cabaret style," with three or four pupils at a table, and are permitted to linger over milk or grape juice. Coffee and candy are not served to the pupils. During the leisure period there is dancing in the social hall of the high-school building in charge of an instructor. Charts on the walls show the latest dance steps. An adjoining room is given over to pupils who are interested in contract bridge, with a member of the faculty serving as teacher and adviser for the players.

Moving pictures are shown in the auditorium to an audience composed largely of fourth-, fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade pupils. The

[9] Quoted from *The Nation's Schools*, 13:15, April, 1934.

films are essentially educational, with occasional cowboy and sports movies on the program.

Dramatic groups rehearse on the third floor of Adelphia's Pratt Building, which is the junior-high-school social center. Elsewhere on the floor pupils indulge in ping-pong, listen to the radio, work jigsaw puzzles, or play chess. Pupils who prefer to use the leisure periods for voluntary study join a study group under an instructor.

Once a week a reading club meets in the library with a faculty member to discuss contemporary literature and the week's new books. Three days a week a group meets with the headmaster for a study of "How to Read Your Newspaper."

The gymnasium is also popular during the leisure hour, where special athletic instruction is supervised by the boys' director on the first-floor gym, and the girls' director on the fifth-floor gym. For health consultations, a registered nurse is available.

"This program is developing not only interest in varied activities among the pupils," said Mr. Slater, the headmaster, "but indicates discrimination as well. The whole effort demonstrates an undoubted socializing value. The fact that these pupils are offered a variety of wholesome activities for their free time seems to promise that they will not be lost or bored into foolishness and uselessness during their future leisure hours."

11. *Basis for Choice.* The choice of leisure-time activities should be suited to the needs of the individual and the basis for the choice might well vary with each person.

a. *Need for Varied Activities.* One of the most important things to keep in mind in selecting leisure-time activities is that no one type should be exclusively indulged in. In the new leisure, everyone should select some of each type of activity that leads to real development. For some, it may even be wise to select an escape activity, but this should certainly not be the major part of one's choice.

b. *Choice of Escape Activities.* To one who is burdened with care and anxiety, who has long hours of arduous toil, escape activities are often valuable as restoratives of health, poise, and balance of mind. When such activities are chosen, they should be as different as possible from the activities in the daily job. Thus, if one's job is an indoor sedentary one, an outdoor activity should be chosen that requires physical effort. If one is engaged in outdoor strenuous physical exercise, it may be wise to choose an indoor, relatively quiet, leisure-time activity. Of course,

practically all activities—appreciative, creative, service—provide escape if they are sufficiently different from the activities of the job. Nearly all so-called "escape" activities also provide some appreciation or some possibilities of creation and of service. Attendance at sports, amateur and professional, is sometimes recommended by physicians as an aid to health and as relief from fatigue and worry.

c. Choice of Cultural and Appreciative Activities. Someone has said that fullness of living is determined by the character, the depth, and the intensity of one's appreciations. Choice of one's leisure-time activities is of vital importance to everyone. Such choice should be partly determined by the opportunities for appreciation and for culture in one's daily occupation. Care should be taken to provide for great breadth of appreciations, intellectual, spiritual, and aesthetic. Many men, like Darwin, have lost their power to enjoy poetry because their entire attention has been focused upon other things. Time should be spent in attendance at concerts, visiting art museums, walking in the open woods and fields, studying the starry heavens or the structure of the earth. We should pause long enough to view with wonder and awe a Niagara Falls, a Grand Canyon, a Yosemite, a Lake Louise, the breathtaking beauty of a sunset.

> When I behold the works of Thy hand,
> The moon and stars that Thou hast ordained,
> What is man that Thou art mindful of him
> And the son of man that Thou visitest him?

Whenever one becomes conscious of a narrowness in his world of appreciations, he should definitely choose such activities as will secure breadth and variety. The same general attitude should be taken toward other elements of culture. Each man should periodically take account of stock and definitely plan activities that will keep him in touch with economics and social trends, with the development of science, with great world movements; he should provide also for social contacts, for living, feeling, working, playing with others.

d. Choice of Creative Activities. The creative activities open to one are determined largely by native ability and early training. This makes of fundamental importance the early discovery of ability and talent and the definite provision for the development

of sufficient basic skills to make later activities possible. The great majority of people have sufficient native ability to enable them to take part in several different forms of creative activity either on the low level of mere performance or the high level of real creation. Ability to play a musical instrument, to sing, or to achieve self-expression through line, color, or design in cloth, wood, iron, or clay—these are possibilities for practically everyone. Such leisure-time creative activities should be chosen as will supplement those experienced on the job. Native talent should, of course, be a factor as well as the time and money that would make possible indulgence in such activities.

e. Choice of Service Activities. Service activities are the duty of everyone. We are all bound so closely together that each one must contribute to the well-being and the development of others. Some service activities constitute the common citizenship duties of all. These call for wise choices of officers, local, state, and national. Anyone who refuses to vote or neglects this duty is recreant as a citizen. The quality of the men who hold office is not due to the rotten professional politicians who dominate elections, but to the ordinary citizen who is unwilling to spend the time and energy necessary to inform himself of the issues involved or the qualifications of the candidates or, if necessary, to run for office himself. Beyond these common citizenship duties lies a whole field of voluntary activities for the state at large, for different social groups, and for individuals. Membership in business clubs, women's clubs, parent-teacher associations, church organizations, and welfare drives, to mention only a few, provides fields for service activities that should be carefully considered and from which selection should be made. Some part of the larger leisure forced upon us should be spent in one or another form of such service activities. The service occupations—teaching, the ministry, medicine, social work, and, to some extent, law—provide opportunity for all three forms—(1) culture and appreciation, (2) creation, and (3) service—but this does not free these workers from the obligation of participation in other forms of activity. The ideal in any case is the attainment by each individual "of the fullest stature of which he is innately capable and to be recognized by others for what he is, regardless of fortuitous circumstances of birth or position."

REFERENCES

1. ADAMS, JAMES TRUSLOW: "The Epic of America," Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1931. The entire book is worthy of careful reading. Chapters II and III are especially useful in describing how some of our ideals of work and life have developed.

2. ALLEN, CATHERINE: Training Students in Group Recreation, *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation,* 20:315, May, 1949. A description of the Tennessee program in training future farmers of America and future homemakers of America in group-recreation leadership.

3. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS: "Education for Family Life," Nineteenth Yearbook, The Association, Washington, D.C., 1941. A consideration of the importance of family life and methods used in schools to promote more effective family life.

4. BEERY, MARY: "Manners Made Easy," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. Gives high-school boys and girls the *what, how,* and *why* of social usage.

5. BUTLER, GEORGE D.: "Introduction to Community Recreation," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949. The nature, significance, and function of community recreation programs.

6. CAVAN, RUTH SHONLE, and others: "Personal Adjustment in Old Age," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1945. Discusses the problems of general and occupational adjustment of older persons.

7. JONES, ARTHUR J., and HAROLD C. HAND: "Guidance and Purposive Living," Chap. I in "Guidance in Educational Institutions," Thirty-seventh Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938. A discussion of life goals as related to other aspects of the life of the individual and the implications for guidance of this concept.

8. MENNINGER, WILLIAM L.: "Enjoying Leisure Time," Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1943. Discusses the importance of the proper use of leisure time for mental health.

9. OVERSTREET, HARRY A.: "A Guide to Civilized Leisure," W. W. Norton & Company, New York, 1934. A fascinating and effective presentation of the need for "loafing" in the development of our lives.

10. ROGERS, JAMES E.: Public Recreation—A Community Must, *Recreation,* 43:175–177, July, 1949. Discusses the vital human need for recreation and the essentials of a good program.

11. SCHELL, ERWIN HASKELL: "New Strength for New Leadership," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. A helpful and inspiring book intended for leaders. It emphasizes the obligations of "men of parts" and sets up service to others as the highest ideal of life.

12. VINAL, WILLIAM GOULD: "Natural Recreation," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1940. Emphasis is placed upon the need for leadership and the techniques of leadership.

PART IV

ORGANIZATION, PRESENT STATUS, AND
EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE AND
PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

A PROPHECY

"The work is in its infancy as yet but it is constantly growing in volume and importance. The Director and those associated with him are enthusiastic over the results that have been achieved even in the few weeks since the Bureau was established, but they believe that in order to cover the field in the most complete and adequate manner, the work should become a part of the public-school system in every community, with experts trained as carefully in the art of vocational guidance as men are trained today for medicine or the law, and supplied with every facility that science can devise for testing the senses and capacities and the whole physical, intellectual, and emotional make-up of the child."

FRANK PARSONS, Director and Counselor, quoted in *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 4:142, January, 1926.

ORGANIZATION OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL
PERSONNEL WORK

I. GENERAL POLICIES OF ORGANIZATION

1. *Guidance a General Function.* From the preceding discussion, it should be clear that guidance is not something that can be separated from the general life of the school; nor is it something that can be located only in some particular part of the school; it cannot be tucked away in the office of the counselor or in the employment bureau. It is a part of every school activity; some form of guidance is the duty and the responsibility of every teacher in the system. It is, then, a function that is shared by all and should be so administered. The problem of organization is one of coordinating the guidance activities of the school in such a way (1) that all the forces of the school shall be brought to bear in a unified and consistent way upon the problems of each child; (2) that, so far as possible, definite, primary responsibility for parts of guidance shall be placed upon certain individuals and certain agencies; (3) that the work shall be so divided that each person shall know what his particular duties and responsibilities are—the things for which he is primarily responsible, the ways in which he merely contributes to the work of others, and the areas that require cooperative effort on the part of all; and (4) that the individual pupil shall have unified assistance, so that he may not be confused by a multiplicity of counselors. This is often a very difficult thing to accomplish. Both because of the present indefiniteness in organization and administration of guidance and because of the nature of the guidance function, there are areas in which responsibility for certain functions cannot be determined definitely. This is by no means confined to guidance. There are also "twilight zones" and "no man's lands" in the relations between superintendent and the school board, the principal and the superintendent, the principal and the teacher. In guidance, the functions, duties, and re-

sponsibilities of any part of the school personnel in a particular school depend to a large extent upon the conditions in the school itself, upon the personnel available, the facilities provided, and the attitudes developed among the various parts of the personnel. In assigning duties and in limiting responsibilities of personnel to certain areas we should continually keep in mind the purpose of such organization, to provide the most effective guidance to each individual pupil; it has no other important function. Although it may never be possible to define precisely the limits of responsibilities in guidance, it is necessary to define primary functions, to locate areas of definite responsibilities, and especially to know the limits beyond which any part of the personnel should go, to know what *not* to do.

2. *Child's Needs for Guidance.* Before we consider the machinery of guidance, it may be well to review briefly the needs of the child for guidance and discuss guidance functions as performed by a few typical agencies within and without the school. This may help us in our general thinking.

What, in general, are the child's needs in guidance?

1. He needs reliable information regarding himself, schools, occupations, and other phases of life, the development of the ability that will enable him to get this information for himself and use it intelligently.

2. He needs opportunities for useful experiences, tryouts and explorations, the development of new interests, and the discovery of his abilities.

3. He needs sympathetic understanding, wise counsel, and watchful care, by those trained and competent to give such help. He needs a friend to whom he may always feel free to go for help.

3. *Guidance a Coordinated Activity.*[1] The guidance needs of individuals can be met only by the coordinated activity of every member of the school personnel. Each has a more or less well-defined responsibility, but even in the field of his own responsibility he cannot perform his function effectively without the aid of others. Keeping in mind the needs of individuals for guidance, we shall, for purposes of illustration, consider three agencies in

---

[1] See DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER, "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," pp. 37–41, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949, for a detailed analysis of responsibilities.

the school that are concerned with guidance and try to indicate the primary responsibility of each for certain aspects of guidance, as well as to show the dependence of each upon other parts of the personnel.

4. *Classroom Teacher.* Some of the most important aspects of guidance are found in connection with the so-called "regular" studies. Obviously, the classroom teacher is primarily responsible for assistance given to the pupil in connection with his subject. But here at the outset we see the dependence of the classroom teacher upon other agencies if he is to do his work well. If he is to teach effectively, he must have facts about the pupil, some of which can be obtained best by experts other than himself. Some of these facts have to do with home life and the economic and social conditions of the parents, others with the results of intelligence tests, still others with health conditions. Obviously, even teaching, which, at best, is guidance, can be effectively done only by the cooperation of all the forces of the school and the community. The teacher may not be primarily responsible for gathering these facts—this must be done by others—but he needs the facts in order to do his own job of guidance well. The classroom teacher is also jointly responsible for conduct, development of character, interests, punctuality, and many other phases of education. There are other aspects of guidance for which he is not primarily responsible. He cannot, ordinarily, give guidance successfully in connection with occupational choice or choice of school, because he does not have the intimate knowledge of occupations or schools that makes it safe. Emotional problems of a serious nature also call for special techniques and specialized training. Guidance in choice of school and occupation necessitates just as specialized knowledge and experience of schools and of occupations as the teacher is supposed to possess of his subject. The classroom teacher, in turn, has definite responsibilities for assisting other parts of the guidance personnel. He can give much valuable information about the pupil to principal, home-room sponsor, and counselor. His knowledge of the interests he has shown in subject studied, his reactions to certain situations, his hopes and fears revealed in rare moments, all serve to complete the picture of the pattern of his personality.

5. *Home-room Sponsor.* The home-room sponsor has somewhat different functions in guidance. These center more largely around problems of adjustment to school, school citizenship in the large, social adjustments of various kinds. His relation to the home is somewhat more intimate. He has an opportunity of knowing his pupils better than anyone else in the school; his home-room activities, both individual and group, are directed definitely toward helping the pupil in his many problems. He can often find the causes of maladjustment to school, of friction with a teacher, of failures in subjects, of difficulties at home; because of the intimate relationships established he can get glimpses into the hidden interests and ambitions of the shy, retiring boy or girl. But for much of the information regarding each pupil he is dependent upon others—the classroom teacher, the counselor, the school nurse, the testing expert. In turn, he can be of invaluable assistance to parents, classroom teacher, and counselor. In many schools, the chief responsibility for all forms of guidance is placed upon the home room, but in most schools this plan has not proved to be completely satisfactory. The usual home-room sponsor does not have the detailed information regarding many phases of guidance—vocational and educational especially—that makes it safe for him to take charge of these guidance functions.

6. *Counselor.* The counselor, properly conceived, is a trained specialist and as such has certain definite functions in guidance. Some of these are discussed in Chaps. XV and XXVI. As now organized in our schools, the counselors' functions differ in different schools; their job is a varied one. Sometimes, they teach most of the time; at other times, they are vice principals spending most of their time in routine matters, cases of discipline, tardiness, etc. Often, their responsibilities are for the vocational aspect of guidance; in a few cases, they are really visiting teachers. In many cases, they are actually deans of girls and deans of boys. There is emerging, however, a rather clear-cut notion of some of the duties and functions of the counselor and a general agreement as to type or types of training required. We shall not here attempt to outline in detail the duties of the counselor but shall merely point out a few and try to show how his work dovetails into and is dependent upon the work of other parts of the school.

The counselor is not primarily a teacher, nor is he an attendance officer, nor does he have charge of cases of discipline or spend his time in checking lateness or in keeping the school records. He is an expert, a chief part of whose function is adjustment of the individual pupil—school, vocational, personality. These duties may or may not be combined in one person, but they are parts of the function of the counselor. The job involves personal contacts, group conferences, intimate relationships such as few teachers have the time or the ability to make.

But it is very clear that no counselor can function properly without the cooperation and assistance of other parts of the school. He should have at instant command all available facts about each pupil—school records, home conditions, both mental and achievement tests. He should have facts about schools, about conditions of labor and other occupational information. Certain information he himself must secure, but for most of it he is dependent upon others. Some of the responsibility for adjustment he shares with the classroom teacher, the home-room sponsor, and the principal, but, except for guidance in relation to school subjects, he is primarily responsible for performing the guidance function. He is supposed to be an expert in the field. He cannot, however, give effective guidance without the aid of other parts of the school personnel.

7. *Interdependence of Agencies.* Although we probably cannot agree on the functions of the classroom teacher, the home-room sponsor, the counselor, and the distribution of these functions, we must admit the interdependence of guidance functions. This should continually be kept in mind in any scheme of guidance.

8. *The Child the Center of Effort.* In setting up the machinery by which any part of our educational system is to be administered, we are always in grave danger of losing sight of the real function of the machinery. That we do this is seen every day in our schools. Daily schedules, curriculums, laboratories, and libraries are organized for ease of control and smoothness of running, rather than with an eye single to the education of the child. Education is too often sacrificed for uniformity and precision—"efficiency," as we call it. Learning, the chief function of the school, is subordinated to "teaching," guidance, to administration. For this reason, the administration of guidance should begin with the child to be guided and his needs. We should ask

what is necessary that he may be guided. Then we should work out from this to those most closely associated with him and then to the more remote agencies. After this, we may give our attention to an organization that will make it possible to center the energies of all concerned in the efficient guidance of the child himself.

9. *Screening the Guidance Functions.* A very interesting and effective method of showing the functions of some of the guidance agencies in school was worked out by the late Richard D. Allen of Providence.[2] Figure 27 is a reproduction of the chart used by him and is largely self-explanatory. He thus describes the operation of screening:

The first screen represents the guidance job of the principal. The gauge is set large enough so that all functions that can be delegated to others will pass through. The criterion of gauge is that of administrative and supervisory responsibility for guidance in his school. He is responsible for creating the organization and condition necessary for the success of the program. Some of these duties he may share with other administrative or supervisory officers, but he is very largely responsible within the limits set by the superintendent. Such matters as the selection and training of advisers, curriculum revision, and problems involving unusual expenditures are usually questions that require the approval of the superintendent or supervisors. On the other hand, such matters as the programs of duties and responsibilities of home-room and subject teachers, the school program, extracurricular activities, and school morale have long been recognized as the province of the principal.

The second screen is that of the guidance functions of the subject teacher. The gauge is set so that all of the guidance functions that are not inseparably connected with *good subject teaching* will pass through. The subject teacher is expected to perform only the functions which are inherent in her work if it is to be done with the greatest possible effectiveness. Every good subject teacher is expected to be deeply interested in her subject and in her pupils in connection with the subject. She is expected to motivate or "sell" her subject, to give attention to the problems of individual differences as they are related to interest and achievement in the subject, and she is expected

---

[2] ALLEN, RICHARD D., *Delegating the Guidance Functions within a Secondary School*, The Vocational Guidance Magazine, 10:14–19, October, 1931. See also ALLEN, R. D., F. J. STEWART, and L. J. SCHLOERB, "Common Problems in Group Guidance," Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1933; for a similar schematic arrangement, chart opposite p. 5.

to develop leadership and to have a fine professional attitude toward such duties as leadership in voluntary club activities related to her subject and in her relations with other teachers.

No subject teacher should claim that such a gauge, good teaching, would leave her burdened with guidance duties for which others are paid. Her duties would include: (1) arousing interests and developing right attitudes concerning her subject; (2) stressing the occupational applications and implications of the subject; (3) arranging tryout projects that will challenge pupils; (4) encouraging and developing the special interests and abilities of pupils as they relate to the subject; (5) insuring timely remedial instructions to handicapped pupils in order to prevent failure; (6) leading some type of club work related to the subject, and (7) cooperating with the class adviser in the service of the pupils. No subject teacher should feel that he is being robbed of his guidance function by the organization of a guidance department. Every task that he can do better than the class adviser is still his.

The third screen is that of the guidance functions of the home-room teacher. In many schools the gauge on this screen is so small that the task of the home-room teacher is well-nigh impossible. Untrained in the principles and practices of educational and vocational guidance, without adequate records, without time or training for the study of individual differences, without time for interviews with pupils, and without an adequate curriculum or training for group guidance instruction, the teacher finds that all of these functions are crowded into a home-room period. Continuous follow-up surveys of graduates and others are impossible under such a scheme. It is equivalent to saying that guidance can be done by anyone, without training, without tools, and without materials. The best that can be said is that it is a beginning.

The gauge of the home-room teacher's screen should be set so that it will retain only those functions which *do not* require (1) a specially selected person; (2) special training; and (3) a program that insures continuous and frequent contact with the same group of pupils over a period of more than two or three years. His functions should include only those which every teacher can and should perform as part of his administrative, social, and professional duty, and those dictated by an unselfish professional spirit of service and love of youth.

These functions include (1) a helpful, friendly, personal interest in pupils with daily contact in the home-room period and before and after school hours; (2) orientation in the life and administrative routine of the school; (3) the keeping of necessary records, reports, attendance data, etc., which often provide occasions for friendly ad-

vice and assistance; (4) the development of school citizenship, leadership, social niceties, and individual personality; and (5) cooperation with subject teachers and advisers of home-room pupils. There are none of these functions which cannot or should not be performed by all teachers, with proper training and supervision by the principal within the school. They do not belong to subject teachers or class advisers, and unless they are performed by the home-room teacher, the school will have failed in its responsibility to that degree.

The fourth and last compartment is not a screen. It has a solid bottom. The adviser cannot shift the final responsibility. He may require the assistance of such special services as the health clinics, the mental hygiene clinic, the laboratory for individual testing, the home visitor, or the placement office, but the pupil will always return to the counselor for advice or for follow-up.

The functions which the adviser performs are fourfold: (1) personnel records and research in the study of individual differences and in the adjustment of individual pupils; (2) individual counseling and adjustment; (3) orientation instruction in educational, vocational, and social problems; and (4) the follow-up of all pupils, both graduates and non-graduates. The adviser's pupil load must not be an impossible one, usually between 200 and 300 pupils. The orientation course should be arranged so that he can meet each pupil twice a week. Time for counseling and records must be provided. Research and follow-up are usually out-of-school duties.

10. *Principles of Organization and Administration of Guidance.* The following general principles should be kept in mind in the *organization of any guidance program:*

1. The guidance service should arise out of the interests, needs, and purposes of the students in the school which it serves.

2. The guidance service should be continuous and serve all youth, not merely the maladjusted, in ways that will help to foster their best growth.

. 3. It should be concerned with the *whole* individual in his total environment and with specific needs and problems.

4. It should be organized to deal not only with serious problems after they arise, but also with causes of such problems, in order to prevent them from arising or to prepare better for their solution.

5. It should provide for all phases of pupil problems and pupil study.

6. It should provide for specialists; and the services of these specialists should be so organized and administered that they not only contribute in these special fields directly to the guidance program but

also constantly strengthen all other members of the school personnel and help them in their problems.

7. It should provide for securing and recording, through tests and other devices, adequate information regarding occupational and educational requirements and opportunities.

8. All guidance should be directed toward improved pupil self-knowledge and self-direction.

9. A functional guidance program should be an integral part of the total school program and be vitally related to home, community, and other out-of-school experiences of pupils. It should permeate the entire school.

10. It should enlist the interest and effort of every member of the school staff.

11. It should be as simple as possible.

12. It should provide for leadership and for coordination of all the agencies of school and community for long-term guidance of youth.

11. *Simple Organization Best.* In the development of a plan for the administration of guidance, it is the best policy to keep the organization as simple as possible and to have different parts grow out of the actual needs of the system. Complicated machinery often seriously interferes with the real function of the work; it sometimes takes so much time and money to run the machinery itself that the actual guidance of the student is neglected. We should never lose sight of the purpose of the machinery—to help the individual. If we allow the machinery to be developed as the need arises, we shall avoid this danger to a large extent. There are, however, some disadvantages in this plan. A school may begin in a small way to do guidance work—some teacher or the principal starts it; as the work develops, need is more clearly seen and further agencies are needed. But the guidance has all been done by one person and to introduce new agencies will necessitate taking away from the one who started the work part, at least, of what he is doing. Sometimes it involves taking away all of the work from him and giving it to someone who is better qualified than he. This always creates an unfortunate situation; it seems ungrateful to penalize the very one who has started such an enterprise. Wise and tactful management on the part of the principal or superintendent is all that can overcome such difficulties.

12. *Plan of Discussion.* No attempt will here be made to show an ideal organization for guidance. There is no one best

type of organization. Several plans now in use will be described, however, and certain suggestions will be made. Two general types of chart or graph are used for this purpose. One presents the organization from the standpoint of the responsibilities of the various parts of the organization and their relationships to one another. The other tries to show the part each agency plays in guiding individuals. Both are necessary to a clear understanding of the problem. The one constructed by Jesse B. Davis and shown on page 518 attempts to show both of these functions in one diagram.

II. SMALL-SCHOOL SYSTEM

In a small-school system the organization should be very simple and such that it can be administered with a minimum of time and effort. Figure 28 shows such a plan.

Here the superintendent or principal appoints from among the teachers a special committee on guidance. He may act as the chairman of the committee, or he may delegate this duty to some teacher who is especially interested and well qualified. The teacher may then become, in effect, the part-time school counselor. This committee studies the problem of guidance in the school, devises plans, and is responsible for the development of these plans in the school, of course always subject to the approval of the superintendent or the principal. The members of the committee work with classroom teachers and the home-room sponsors, if there are any such. They secure the cooperation of all forces in the school in the work of assisting the pupil. They may divide the work among themselves, one being responsible for the adjustment of the students to the school, another for the occupational aspects of guidance, and another for further educational guidance, each thus becoming a part-time counselor. Often, most of the special work is done by the chairman of the committee. The effort is made to locate definite responsibility for certain phases of the guidance program among classroom teachers, home-room sponsors, and special workers. The most important part of the initial work is always found to be that of "selling the idea," of focusing the attention of all in the school upon the problem of guidance—the need for help and methods of helping students. In a small school, it is practically always necessary for the work of guidance to be done by regular teach-

ers, often as additional work, although it is very desirable that provision for such work shall be made in the teaching load. One of the advantages of this plan is that it provides a means of
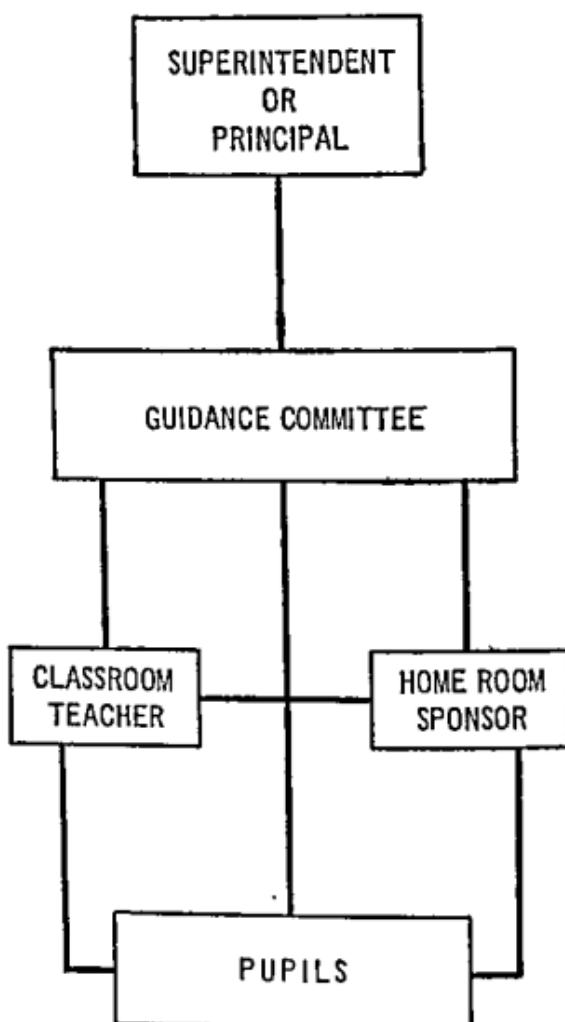
Fig. 28. Organization of guidance in a small-school system.

interesting all teachers in the study of guidance problems and furnishes a basis for specialization as the school increases in size.

III. LARGE-SCHOOL SYSTEM

A larger school or school system necessitates an organization that is somewhat more complicated. Even here, the work usually begins, as was described in the small school, with some one

teacher or several teachers becoming interested and starting the work as an additional task. The organization of guidance in the larger schools will be understood more clearly if we first consider it from the standpoint of the guidance functions as they appear in the school.

1. *Suggested Plan by Yeager.*[3] A good diagram from this point of view is the one suggested by Yeager and shown in Figure 29. The chart is so arranged that the seven functions are shown in their relationship to the home, to the community, and to principals and teachers. All functions center in the individual pupil. The diagram does not indicate the relationship between the functions nor the persons upon whom the responsibility for guidance of pupils is placed.

2. *Rochester, N.Y., Plan.* Figure 30 shows the over-all plan of personnel services in Rochester, N.Y. This diagram indicates that the conception of guidance services is a very broad one, including nearly every aspect of the life of the pupil; and shows the wealth and variety of the services available.

3. *San Diego, Calif., Plan.* Figures 31 to 34 show the general plan for guidance services in the San Diego schools. Figure 31 indicates the general relationships between the administrative staff, the director of guidance, the guidance bureau, and community agencies. Figure 32 gives the procedures within each school. It indicates the importance attached to the teacher as an agent for guidance. In Fig. 33 we see the procedures as related to the guidance bureau, and in Fig. 34 the method of coordination between the community agencies and the guidance bureau. Many schools have provided some or all of the services indicated in these charts, but few have organized them as completely as this.

4. *Plan by Davis.* One of the best diagrams is one worked out by Jesse B. Davis[4] several years ago and shown in Fig. 35. It shows the organization suggested for a single high school. Very little is said about a city-wide plan, but it is understood that cooperation in a city-wide plan of guidance would be effected

[3] YEAGER, WILLIAM A., "Administration and the Pupil," p. 468, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. (*Used by special permission of the publisher.*)

[4] NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, COMMITTEE ON GUIDANCE, Guidance in Secondary Schools, Bulletin 9:8, January, 1928.
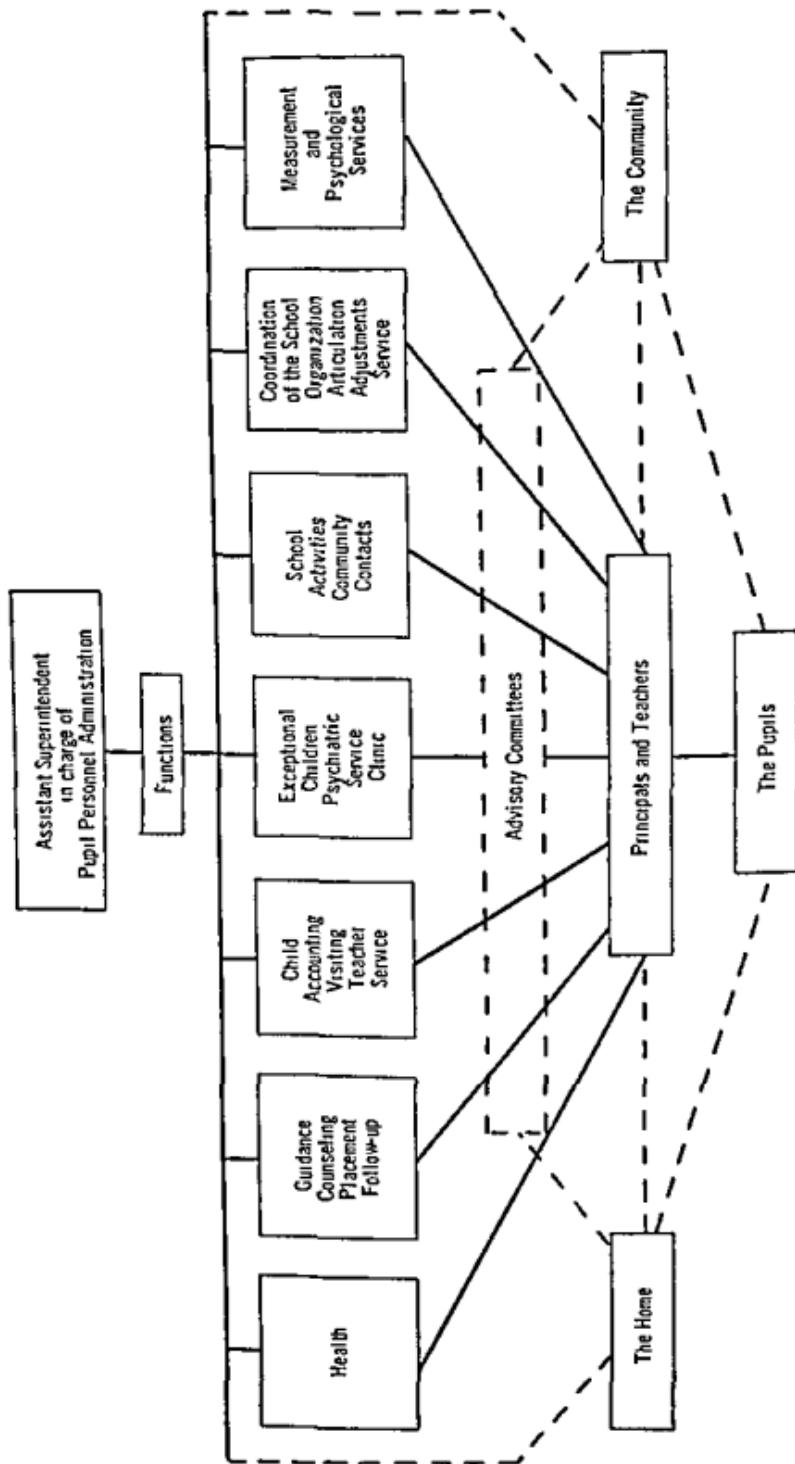
Fig. 29. Organization of pupil personnel services for a large-school system (Yeager; *used by special permission of the publisher*).
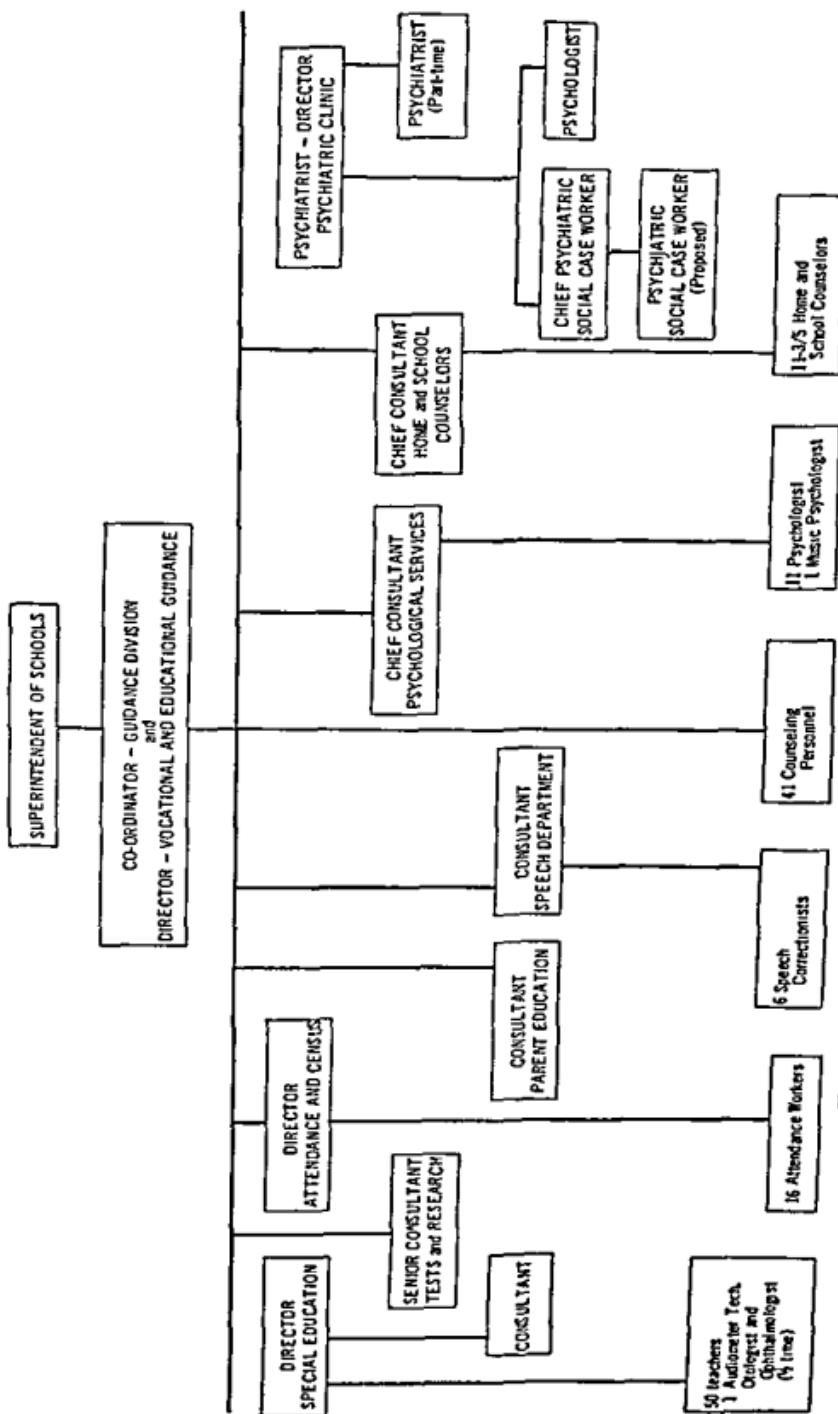
Fig. 30. Organization of the guidance service in Rochester, N.Y.

through the director of guidance of the school or the counselor.

The essential features of the plan are clearly brought out in the chart. The general program of guidance is administered under the leadership of the principal, but the work of guidance
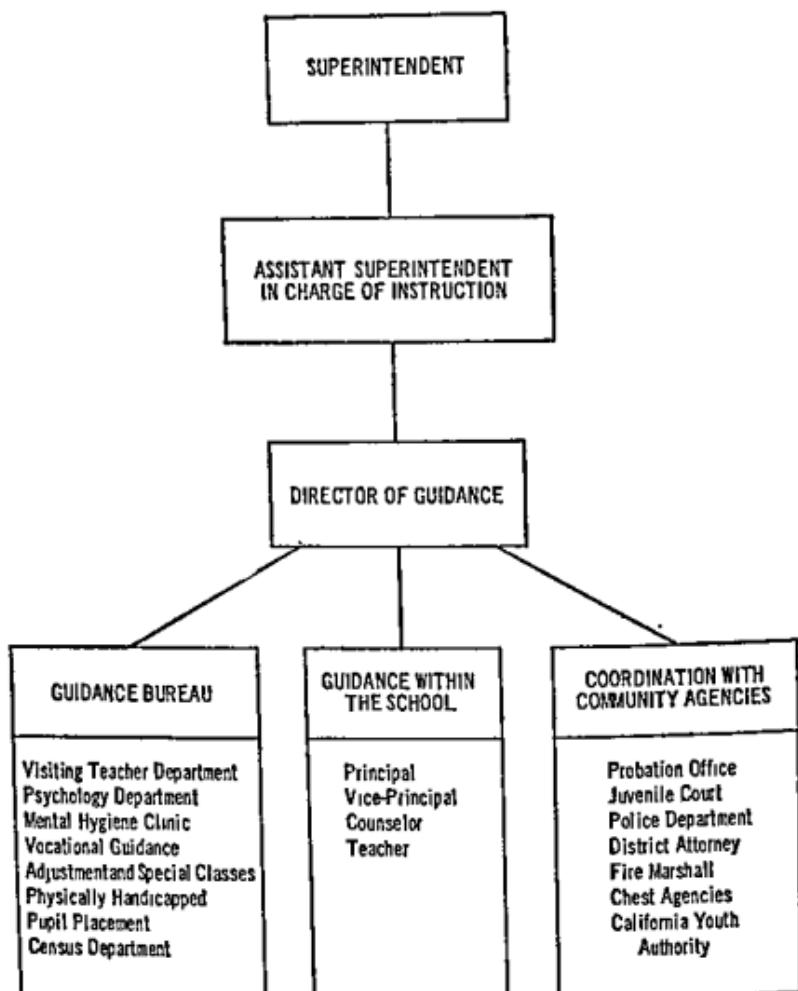
Fig. 31. Organization for pupil guidance, San Diego, Calif.

is the direct responsibility of the director of guidance, who works with the dean of girls and the dean of boys and who is assisted by a faculty guidance committee. This committee is made up largely of special assistants who are, for the most part, teachers who have special qualifications for certain kinds of guidance work. All educational, medical, psychological, social, and civic welfare organizations are utilized for securing informa-

PRINCIPAL
Establishment of Organization
Selection of Counseling Personnel
Administration of Program

VICE-PRINCIPAL
Leadership of Counseling Personnel
Leadership of Inservice Training in
Guidance for Teachers
School Attendance
Individual Discipline
Personal Guidance

COUNSELOR
Individual Guidance:
Educational Guidance
Personal Guidance
Vocational Guidance
Personnel Records
Group Guidance and Planning

TEACHER
Direct Group Guidance:
Educational
Personal
Vocational
Indirect Guidance:
Relationships
Attitudes
Understandings
Records

Fig. 32. Procedures of guidance within schools, San Diego, Calif.

VISITING TEACHER DEPARTMENT	ATTENDANCE WORK CASE WORK: (a) Short-term service (b) Long-term service (c) Liaison with Community Agencies
PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT	INDIVIDUAL TESTS: (a) Intelligence (b) Achievement (c) Aptitude (d) Emotional Adjustment
MENTAL HYGIENE CLINIC	Case Treatment Consultation with Parents Inservice Training of Bureau Personnel Consultation with VT & Personnel
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE	Cooperation with Counselors & Teachers Materials for Counselors & Teachers Group Vocational Guidance Conferences
ADJUSTMENT AND SPECIAL CLASSES	Rooms for mentally normal maladjusted Rooms for mentally retarded
PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED	SPECIALIZED EDUCATION WITHIN: (a) Sunshine School (b) Rest Haven School (c) Vauclain School (d) Aural Deaf Classes (e) Lip Reading Work (f) Sight Saving Class (g) Speech Therapy Work (h) Home Tutor Work
PUPIL PLACEMENT	Special Attendance Permits Pupil Placement Council

Fig. 33. General procedures for guidance, San Diego, Calif.

COORDINATION PROCEDURES WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES

COMMUNITY AGENCY   **SCHOOL AGENCY**

| PROBATION OFFICE | Referral of Pupils
Consultation on Pupils
Staff Meeting Attendance | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| JUVENILE COURT | Informal Hearings
Juvenile Protection Committee | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| ANTHONY HOME | Consultation on Inmates
Educational Program | GUIDANCE BUREAU
VALLEY VIEW SCHOOL |

| POLICE DEPARTMENT
(Juvenile Bureau) | Daily Consultation and
Referrals | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| DISTRICT ATTORNEY | Consultation & Assistance in
Protection, in School
Cases Involving Pupils | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| FIRE MARSHALL | Consultation and Treatment of
young Arsonists | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| CHEST AGENCIES | Membership on Numerous Boards
of Directors & Councils
Consultation and Referral
of Cases | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| CALIFORNIA YOUTH
AUTHORITY | Consultation on Pupils
Receiving Parolees | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

| CALIFORNIA ADULT
AUTHORITY | Consultations on Pupils
whose parents are in
prison. | GUIDANCE BUREAU |

FIG. 34. Coordination procedures with community agencies, San Diego, Calif.

tion and assistance. The foundation of all guidance, according to Davis, is in the home room, and the home-room sponsor functions in all forms of guidance.
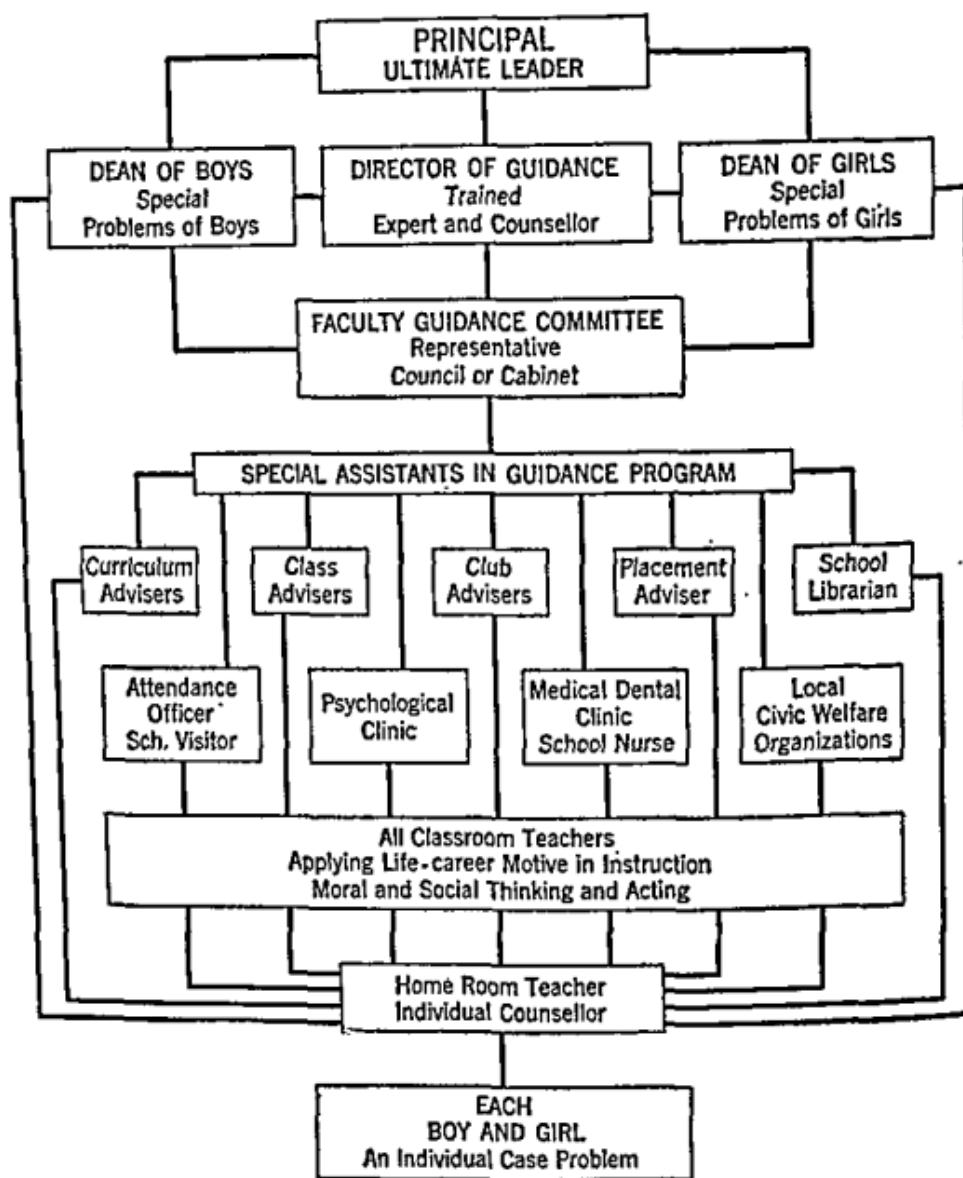
FIG. 35. Plan by Davis for the organization of guidance.

Finally, and most important, is the individual boy and girl.

While a great deal can be accomplished in the program of guidance by handling the pupils in various groups, the most essential consideration is the individual boy and girl. Each pupil must be studied as a

case problem. The entire structure of the organization for guidance must be built with the purpose of giving to each pupil every possible advantage and assistance in finding himself, in making such decisions affecting his life career as the school system forces upon him from time to time, and in making a right start during the formative years of his life.[5]

These schemes for the organization of guidance have been presented not as models that can be adopted and put into operation by a school or a school system, but as samples of what is now being done in various cities, and as examples of the variation in the schemes used for carrying out the purposes of guidance. It may be that no school should attempt to put into operation any of the schemes described. Conditions vary in different localities, and guidance programs must be adapted to the peculiar needs of each locality. Superintendents and principals should, however, find very valuable suggestions in these schemes that will assist them in planning an organization that will work and that will embody the important features of a real guidance program.

5. *Guidance in the Elementary School.* The organization of guidance in the elementary school is usually much more simple than that in the high school. One such plan is shown in Fig. 36. Here all teachers have direct responsibility for guidance, but an assistant to the principal acts as a general counselor for the school. He is responsible for securing the cooperation of the special services in the city school administration such as that of the supervising counselor, the special counselor, and the guidance and counseling service. He is chiefly responsible for cooperation with the home. He also performs some individual guidance service when needed. A guidance committee assists.

6. *Variations in Organization.* When we study the various plans in operation, it is at once apparent that no two cities or schools agree upon a plan of organization. This is both natural and wise, for no one knows what plan is best. In each school and city, that plan is best which secures for the children in the school or city the best and most efficient guidance. In his survey of guidance, Reavis[6] found four general types of program in

---

[5] *Ibid.,* pp. 16, 17.

[6] Reavis, W. C., *Programs of Guidance, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 17,* 1932. *(National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph, 14,* p. 135.)

operation: (1) centralized bureaus of guidance for secondary schools in city systems; (2) city-school systems with a central guidance organization but with the individual secondary school considered the unit in the program; (3) centralized bureaus or departments in individual secondary schools; (4) central guid-
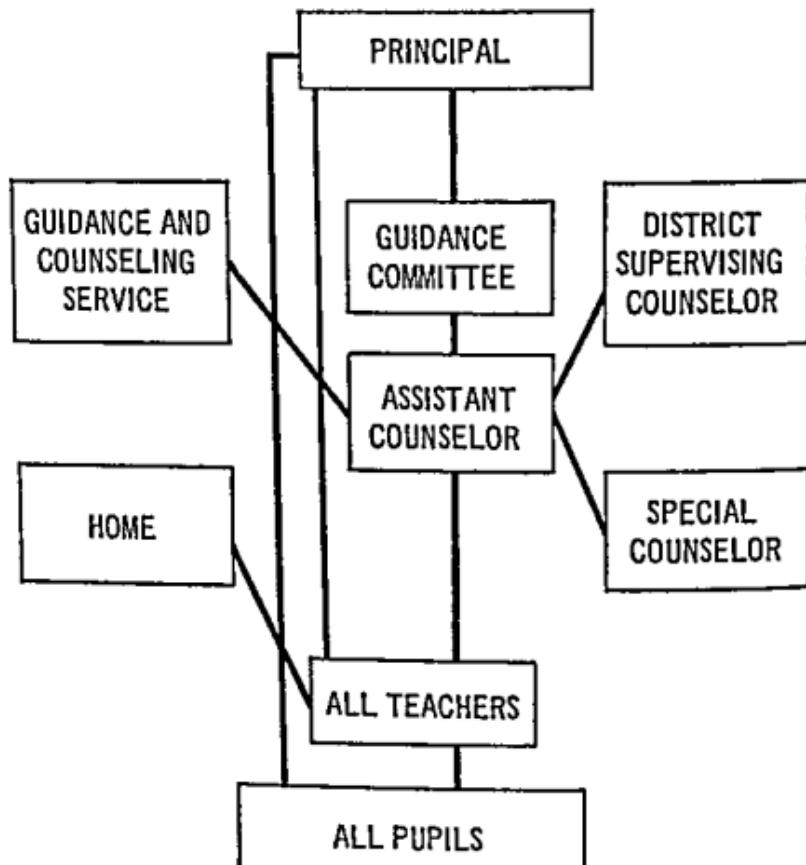
Fig. 36. Guidance in an elementary school, Los Angeles, Calif., 1949.

ance organizations in individual secondary schools which utilize regular officers and teachers as guidance functionaries. These types still remain but many other types have been organized in elementary and secondary schools throughout the country. Virtually the same guidance activities are undertaken under the different programs. The chief variations consist in the methods employed in the several school systems and individual schools and some difference in emphasis on certain phases of guidance activity, such as vocational guidance, educational guidance, or psychiatric social guidance.

7. *General Principles for Organization.* All surely will agree that most of the guidance itself must be done in the school where the pupil is located; it cannot be considered to be a function of the central organization. Here is the place where personality and school adjustment are made; where choice of subjects, schools, and occupations is made; where facts regarding the individual, occupations, and schools are assembled and used; even where initial recommendations for jobs and for schools must be made. The best organization in a school involves placing someone in general charge of the entire guidance program, at least that part related to vocational and educational guidance. This person should be an expert in guidance. He should have an active, working group of people, a committee for the organization of guidance in the school and especially for selling the guidance idea to all teachers. These should be specially qualified persons in charge of the two phases of guidance under consideration; possibly there should be a third whose duty it would be to look after special personality adjustment problems —the work of the visiting teacher. Who these people should be or what they should be called is unimportant. Placement work, both that connected with securing jobs and that connected with school and college placement, should be provided, each in close connection with the one or ones in charge of each phase of the work.

8. *Central Organization in a Large City.* In a large city, there should be a central guidance organization the chief function of which is to promote and coordinate the work of guidance in the city, not only in the schools but also in and among the various service agencies interested. It should be placed directly in charge of someone who has the vision of what guidance is and has the ability to secure cooperation and coordination. He may be an assistant or associate superintendent, if he does not have too many other duties to perform. Probably, the actual work had better be under a director of guidance. Whoever he is, he should have the assistance of a carefully selected group or committee from the city as a whole. If the city is comparatively small, probably one person from each school would be sufficient; but if it is large, such a representation would be far too cumbersome for effective work. The function of the director and his committee would be to stimulate interest in guidance,

promote a real understanding of the nature of the work, and secure the cooperation of principal and teachers within the school and of agencies and business houses outside the school. In addition to this function, the central agency should maintain a central employment bureau and some system of follow-up work. Both of them should, of course, be supplementary to and coordinated with the work in each school. Possibly, the employment office in each school should be a branch of the central employment office. The chief work of such central bureaus must be with children after they leave school. The particular part taken by the central agency in the employment work and the follow-up should be determined by the conditions in each city.

In addition to these functions of the central agency there are other functions that must be performed by some agency. These have to do with testing and research. Each guidance agency, in the school and in the central office, should have at hand results of tests given by someone competent to give and interpret them. Each agency should have the results of studies of occupations, both local and general, and each should have the results of studies about schools and colleges. In most cases, these functions are not concentrated in one agency. Probably this is a good practice. The important points are (1) that they be done, (2) that someone competent shall do them, (3) that the results be made available to those most closely connected with the actual work of guidance. Probably, tests can best be given and results interpreted by a central testing bureau or a research department.

Research studies in occupations can also be efficiently undertaken by a central bureau—possibly the same research department. Studies of schools and colleges and further education in general are now usually conducted by individuals in separate schools. Many facts, at least, could be more efficiently obtained by a central agency, either the research department or the central committee under the director.

9. *Location of Director of Guidance.* In what part of the executive department of the school systems should the director of guidance be placed? This we can answer only in a negative way. He should not be charged primarily with disciplinary or police duties of any kind. He therefore should not be under the compulsory education department. Guidance workers can contribute materially to the solution of problems of truancy and

elimination from school; the entire compulsory education department should have the guidance attitude, but guidance should not be dominated by compulsory education. In whatever department the guidance work is located, it should be free to perform its real function and be provided with ample facilities for carrying on its work.

Such an organization as has been described applies primarily to cities of considerable size or to fairly large schools; it cannot be taken over and fully applied in smaller places or in rural districts. In such places, the need for guidance is just as great as in larger places. What can be done in smaller localities?

IV. GUIDANCE IN RURAL AREAS

1. *Difficulty of the Problem.* In rural areas, the difficulties of organization of guidance activities are very great. The lack of trained teachers, the inadequate facilities, the wide dispersal of schools are conditions that make the situation very different from that in urban areas. The type of organization suited to cities is not suitable for rural areas. So far, little has been done for the guidance of rural boys and girls.

2. *Cooperation in Guidance.* Obviously, any successful plan for rural areas must involve the cooperation and coordination of all forces and agencies that may be utilized. One of the outstanding developments in guidance during recent years has been the organization of such cooperative enterprises, especially in rural districts. This work has been greatly stimulated by the Alliance for the Guidance of Rural Youth under the active leadership of O. Latham Hatcher. In 1914 Dr. Hatcher organized the Virginia Bureau of Vocations, which was changed later to the Bureau of Vocations, then to the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, and still later to the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth. Up to 1924 the efforts of these organizations were directed mainly toward the education of women, but since that time the chief emphasis has been upon problems connected with the guidance of rural youth. Dr. Hatcher was also for several years chairman of the Committee on Guidance of Rural Youth of the National Vocational Guidance Association. Associated with her as consultants were men and women representing public and private schools, teacher-training institutions, state departments of education, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Girl Scouts,

Campfire Girls, Boy Scouts, business and professional women's clubs, Rotary, Kiwanis, and other similar agencies, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, American Association of University Women. Under her leadership principles were formulated and suggestions made. Some of the most important of these principles were as follows:

1. The need for cooperation among all agencies interested in guidance is stressed in order to bring real help to the rural boys and girls and also to avoid overlapping and wasted effort.

2. The school is recognized as the primary agency in guidance and should be the center of its activities.

3. A guidance committee covering, often, as large an area as a county should be formed, representative of the chief agencies available that can assist in the guidance program.

4. Certain guidance activities should be undertaken only by guidance experts; other nontechnical activities may be safely carried on by service agencies of various kinds.

5. A definite plan should be formulated for interpreting guidance to the rural communities. A part of this plan is the publication of a rural guidance handbook.

6. Experimentation in various plans of cooperation between the public schools and the different agencies available should be encouraged in order to find what are the most desirable methods of cooperation and what will bring guidance aids most effectively to the boys and girls in rural districts.

3. *Experiments in Rural Cooperation.* Cooperative plans are now in operation in various states. Some of these that have received wide recognition are those located in Henrico County, Virginia, in Muskegon County, Michigan, and the St. Clair River area, Michigan, in Craven County, North Carolina, in Breathitt County, Kentucky, in Harlan County, Tennessee, and in Rockland County and several other counties, New York. These plans differ in many particulars. Some have a county director of guidance, under the county superintendent; in other places, cooperation is effected through the state department of education; in still others, some teacher with vision and initiative takes the lead and secures a very effective form of cooperation with practically no machinery. In Muskegon County, Michigan, the county guidance council is composed of representatives from Noon Day Luncheon Clubs, the Foreman's Club, Y.M.C.A.,

Y.W.C.A., Employers Association, Chamber of Commerce, the Ministerial Association, Catholic Schools, the Women's Club, Boy Scouts, the superintendents of Muskegon, Muskegon Heights, and North Muskegon Schools, county commissioner of schools, elementary school supervisor, the principals of the junior high schools and senior high schools of Greater Muskegon, directors of the Junior College, Hackley Manual Training School and Part-time School, and counselors in the Greater Muskegon Schools.

An effective cooperative program was put in operation in the St. Clair River area in Michigan. This was sponsored and organized by the public schools of Algonac, Marine City, Marysville, and St. Clair, and the Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education. Each city had its own advisory committee of eight members consisting of representatives of employers, labor, school, and youth. The policies of the area were determined by an area advisory committee composed of the advisory committees of each city. An Area Executive Committee composed of the superintendent of schools and one board member from each city determines the financial arrangements.

In the State of New York there are a number of counties operating a county-wide program of guidance under the provisions of Section 589 of the Education Law of the state. A general description of the plan in operation in Lewis County will show the important features: [7]

The guidance program in Lewis County has been carried out cooperatively among seven schools for a period of two years. It was started with what was called a Guidance Board, organized by having the school boards of each Union Free and Central Rural School choose one member from their board, who made up the Guidance Board for the Cooperating schools. The cooperating schools paid to the treasurer of the Board a sum of money, based on equalized valuations of the several schools, each school paying in the proportion that their equalized valuation bore to the total equalized valuation of the six cooperating schools.

The Guidance Board employed a Guidance Counselor, subject to the approval of the four district superintendents of schools of the county. These district superintendents served then and continue to serve as an advisory board to the guidance board.

[7] This description is taken largely from a letter from Glenn A. Sealy, Superintendent of Schools of the First Supervisory District, Lewis County.

In the beginning of the second year, this board was reorganized under Section 589 of the Education Law of the State of New York, which authorized the Board of Supervisors of the several towns of a county to establish in the county a County Vocational Education and Extension Board.

The guidance counselor divides his time among seven schools, largely in proportion to the pupil registration in the junior-senior-high-school departments of these schools. The schools range in size from the village principality of Carthage, N.Y., down to the smaller central and rural union free schools having about 150 pupils registered in their junior-senior-high-school departments. The Guidance Counselor's program, in general, is something as follows:

A meeting of district superintendents and principals is held with the guidance counselor and the general plan of the work for the counselor is submitted, critically evaluated, and finally modified and accepted by the entire group, so that the superintendents, principals, and counselor have a clear understanding of the nature and scope of the work of the counselor. This general outline is broad enough to meet the needs of the several schools and varies somewhat among the schools.

The visits of the counselor to each school vary from one-half day a week to a day in the school, with whatever field work is found necessary as a result of the school contact. Occupational files are set up in each school. The teachers become familiar with the contents of the files.

The guidance counselor contacts personally all of the pupils, beginning with seniors, where the most intensive work is done, with more or less casual contacts in the lower grades down to the seventh. The personal contacts with the pupils have proved very helpful and satisfactory. An effort is made to have each teacher feel a direct and personal responsibility for a part in the guidance program.

Problem cases are treated clinically, with the counselor, principal, and teacher to whom the pupil recites sitting in at the clinic. Of course, the pupil is spared every embarrassment and is not "hailed" before the clinic.

The counselor contacts all industrial plants and educational institutions within the range of the schools he serves and many times goes far beyond the county boundaries. He is supposed to be informed on all schools and industries in which children are interested.

Such cooperative plans do not take away from the local school any of its responsibility for the guidance of its pupils. It merely makes available experts in various fields that aid the school in making guidance more effective. By pooling the financial resources of all the

schools in the area the services of such experts are made available. In many cases it also makes it possible to extend the guidance service to youth who are no longer in school.

These county boards employ from one to seven or eight counselors. Two or more school districts located conveniently in a geographic area may pool resources to employ a full-time qualified counselor for service in these schools. There were three such programs operating in New York State until recently. In one area a team consisting of a vocational counselor, a psychologist, and two remedial-reading teachers was employed, to serve in four school districts.

The Education Law has been amended to provide for the creation of a so-called "Intermediate School District." This legislation was designed to provide for a grouping of small-school districts in rural areas outside of superintendencies into administrative units, comparable to small city or village school districts. The legislation intends that school districts in rural areas be created where there will be sufficient enrollment to warrant the employment of a superintendent of schools and staff assistants.

The exigencies of the Second World War seriously interfered with these services but they are gradually being restored.

V. HOME ROOM AND GUIDANCE

1. *Need for Home Rooms.* Home rooms have been widely adopted in our junior and senior high schools. This is a by-product of the tendency toward departmentalization. In the general organization of instruction on the departmental basis, there is no provision by which any one teacher has definite responsibility for any student for his entire work. A student comes in contact with many different teachers, each of whom knows him only from the point of view of the subject and the classroom. There is great need for providing someone who will take a definite responsibility for each student, whose duty it will be to study him, learn all about him, and assist him in his adjustments to school. The home-room sponsor is the only one who has the student every day, whose duty it is to know all about his work, study his characteristics, and exercise a general oversight of him.

2. *Organization of the Home Room.* Home rooms are organized in different ways. Sometimes a home-room sponsor has a group for a term or a year only; sometimes he has charge of the same group for the full time of the course. The usual plan is to have the students in the home room all from the same grade or class. Figure 37 shows a guidance organization based on home-room sponsors and class advisers. These operate in con-
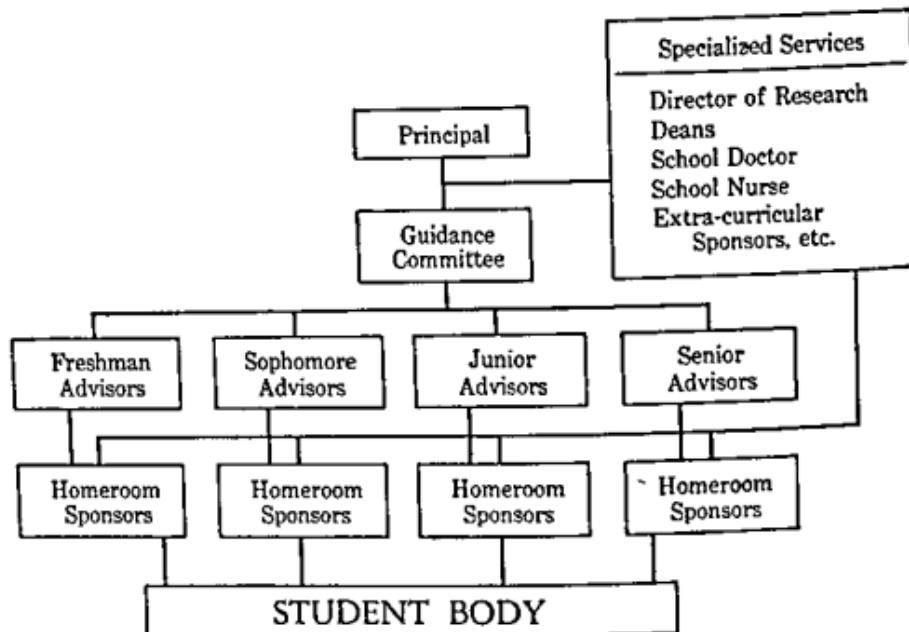
Fig. 37. A plan of class advisers and home-room sponsors.

nection with a guidance committee and their work is coordinated with that of the specialized service. There are usually two advisers for each class, one for boys and one for girls. Sometimes each home room is a segment of the entire school; that is, each class or grade in school is represented in the home room. Under this plan in a four-year high school, each home room might have twelve freshmen, ten sophomores, eight juniors, and five seniors. This plan is found to work exceptionally well. It does, however, make somewhat more difficult the program of group conferences, because at least some of the problems facing each class may be different. Most "home rooms" are such in name only and do not provide opportunities to meet the need already described. The usual home room is a place to which pupils come at the beginning of each session, where they have their desks

and leave their books, where absence and tardiness are checked, and where notices are read. The teacher in charge is responsible for recording grades and sending out reports. There is often a few minutes for more or less perfunctory reading of a passage of scripture and for notices. To give opportunity for attaining the objectives for which the home room is designed there must be at least one full period a week given to home-room activities and a longer period than ten minutes each day.

3. *The Aims of the Home Room.* The chief aims of the home room as given by McKown [8] are (1) to develop desirable pupil-teacher relationships; (2) to assist in the guidance of pupils; (3) to develop desirable ideals and habits, personal and civic; (4) to expedite the handling of administrative routine educatively.

If the analysis of guidance already given is correct, each of the first three of these aims is directly concerned with guidance. Desirable pupil-teacher relationship is, possibly, the most important of all the guidance functions. This is fundamental in the adjustment of the pupil to all phases of school life and in assistance in study. It is also essential in finding many facts about the pupil himself. Many of these could not be discovered in any other way.

The home-room sponsor has the opportunity of knowing the members of his room more intimately and accurately than the classroom teacher can ever know them, especially in the permanent home-room plan in which each pupil stays in the same home room for at least three years. The relationships thus established are cumulative in their effects and provide the best possible basis for certain forms of assistance. Not only does the home-room sponsor know each pupil more intimately, but he can be of great assistance to the classroom teacher in many ways. Discouragement and failure of pupils may often be prevented by information regarding home conditions, health, etc., such as only the home-room sponsor may have. Knowledge of outside interests of pupils may often be of great help to the classroom teacher in planning her work and in utilizing special interests. All such information enables the classroom teacher to make more effective the assistance she gives to her pupils.

[8] McKown, Harry C., "Home Room Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

4. *Place of the Home Room in Guidance.* There is at present quite a radical difference of opinion regarding the place of the home room in guidance. Davis maintains that it is and should be the focal point for all guidance. The strategic place of the home-room sponsor in the guidance program, as Davis sees it, is well expressed by the following quotation:

> It is in this capacity that she comes to know each pupil in the room more intimately than any other teacher. She alone has the opportunity of knowing the pupil in all his relationships: his studies; his difficulties with teachers; his problems of discipline; his home conditions and environment; his associates in school and out; his attitudes, interests, and abilities. Therefore, whether the school be large or small, it is with the home-room teacher that the foundations for guidance must be laid.[9]

McKown, although not according the home room the central place in guidance suggested by Davis, considers it of vital importance in all forms of guidance activity:

> In summary, the home room, because of the naturalness of its setting and situation and because of the requirement that the sponsor be a preventer of difficulties rather than a "trouble shooter" after the difficulties have arisen, can offer very definite contributions in the personal, educational, social, and moral aspects of guidance not at present very definitely or adequately provided for in the so-called curricular activities, and it can also afford opportunity for supplementation of the regular curricular work now being done in the vocational, physical, and recreational phases of guidance.[10]

Brewer, thinking of guidance as a more specialized procedure, does not consider that the home room has anything more than a very subsidiary function in guidance. He feels that it is a job for experts only and that home-room sponsors, by the very nature of their duties and their training, are not fitted for such an important function.

These differences are caused largely by differences in emphasis upon certain aspects of guidance or upon certain elements in the guidance process. Davis and McKown, although not neglecting the vocational phase of guidance, stress school and personal

[9] NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, COMMITTEE ON GUIDANCE, *op. cit.*, p. 16.
[10] McKOWN, *op. cit.*, pp. 38, 39.

adjustment; Brewer stresses vocational guidance. Davis and McKown are thinking more of methods of securing information about the student, his interests, abilities, home conditions, etc.; Brewer has more definitely in mind securing information about vocations. Both groups stress the need for definite assistance, but Brewer is thinking more of assistance in specialized problems relating to vocations and to behavior, while Davis and McKown have more definitely in mind the usual problems that arise in school and home. It is possible that the difference may be due to a more fundamental divergence in point of view.

There seem to be two very definite and distinct philosophies or trends in guidance at present, the one the theory that the guidance person is a specialist working apart, rather mysteriously, behind closed doors, using esoteric practices and coming forth only occasionally to make impressive and perhaps mystifying announcements; the other the theory that the guidance person is merely a leader in a movement and an atmosphere which permeates the whole school. This latter point of view presents guidance as an attitude, a way of looking at and treating the child's problem, an approach to the problem of truly educating the child.[11]

These two points of view are seldom clearly defined. Certainly it cannot be said that Brewer thinks of guidance merely as a separate, mysterious process or that the counselor should be someone who is separate from the work of the school as a whole. Nevertheless, there is some foundation for the statement; it does represent fairly accurately a difference in point of view that is all too common. There really is no room for such a difference, because we need both the expert and the home-room sponsor; each has his contribution to make. The home-room sponsor, in the real home room, should have much more intimate knowledge of the entire pupil than anyone else in the school system. He is, therefore, a very important part of the guidance setup; probably no guidance of any kind should be undertaken without his co-operation. It is not necessary that he actually initiate every guidance activity; in fact, it is probably important that he should not do so. Every part of the school system is and should be vitally concerned with assisting the pupil and should be alert to

[11] Wisconsin Teachers Association, "Report of Guidance Committee," p. 29, Wisconsin Teachers Association, Madison, Wis., 1933.

discover problems of individuals and to initiate guidance procedures. It is highly probable that more of these problems will come to the attention of the home-room sponsor than to any other one person. It is also true that the particular type of assistance needed often requires detailed knowledge and technical skill not possessed by the home-room sponsor. When this is the case, he should not himself undertake such guidance; he should refer it to the expert who, presumably, can give the assistance needed in a more efficient manner. It should be a matter of cooperation in which all the forces of the school are utilized and coordinated for the solution of the problem presented, each contributing his part and performing his peculiar function.

5. *Difficulties of Home-room Guidance.* One of the chief difficulties in considering the home-room sponsor as the center of guidance work is the impossibility of finding anyone who is expert enough in all phases of guidance to be efficient. If such a person were found, he probably would not be a home-room sponsor but the director of guidance. As we have already seen, efficient guidance demands experts—experts in collecting information, in teaching, counseling, and all other phases of guidance. Students, in some way, must have the benefit of such expert assistance. On the other hand, we cannot look with favor upon the practice of sending the student who needs help to occupational experts, college experts, social experts, or educational experts for counsel and not providing some means of unifying and interpreting the help those experts give. Such more or less unrelated counsel would be confusing in the extreme. Specialists in medicine are very necessary and very helpful but, unless the specialist has had broad training and general experience, he is likely to be one-sided and biased in his diagnosis. The coming of specialists in medicine has brought about and necessitated the specialist in diagnosis. When once the specialist knows the trouble, he can treat the case intelligently and effectively. Specialists in guidance require a diagnostician, someone who knows the student from many points of view and who can not only diagnose but also unify the treatment. We must in some way provide for unified whole-child counsel. In most cases the home-room sponsor is not qualified for such a task, but he can be of great assistance to the school counselor in giving an over-all view of the pupil.

One of the most serious difficulties with the plan of making the home-room sponsor the center is the general failure of school authorities to recognize the real function of the home room. In most schools, it is considered merely as a place where students may leave their books, to which they come when they arrive at school and before they are dismissed for the day. The home-room sponsor is responsible for keeping the records for her group; she has her pupils alone for possibly fifteen minutes each day and cannot know them intimately. This situation is clearly and forcibly expressed by one of these harassed home-room sponsors.[12]

As a high-school teacher having forty young people in my home room, I should most emphatically say that the home-room teacher cannot do the vocational counseling for her group. These children enter the room between 8:15 and 8:30 A.M., when the opening bell rings. Five minutes are allowed the teacher in which to check up the attendance; then another bell sounds for the children to pass to their respective rooms. At the end of the second hour they return to the home room for five minutes for another checking up. The home-room teacher does not see them again until five minutes before closing, when they return for a final checking up.

Personally, I do not teach a school subject to any of these children who are assigned to me as home-room teacher.

My work in the English department brings me into classroom contact with 150 boys and girls, with any one of whom I am far better acquainted, as a result of being their teacher, than I am with any of my home-room pupils. A counselor especially trained for the important work of counseling, in a school where his work has the active sympathy and hearty cooperation of the members of the faculty, ought to be very much better able to do the work than the home-room teacher.

I have been particularly interested in a recent article entitled Student Advisers, in *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*. The opening sentences read: "The home-room or record teacher is the direct adviser of each pupil in the school. This teacher knows more intimately than any other member of the faculty the strength and weakness of each pupil in the class."

I should very much like to know how the home-room teacher accomplishes this miracle. I confess that I have never been able to get this intimate knowledge of my home-room group.

[12] BREWER, J. M., and others, "Cases in the Administration of Guidance," p. 189, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1929.

It is this condition, so common in our schools, that has led many schools to abandon the home room entirely. If the home room is to be successful and if the home-room sponsor is charged with the responsibility of any part of the guidance program, provisions should be made so that she may have her group alone during a period long enough to enable her to find their problems and that she may have enough time free from recitations to be able to study each individual and to make the necessary contacts with other teachers in the school. Some schools do provide for this by relieving the home-room sponsor from part of the teaching load and by providing a home-room period each day, or several times a week, in which real guidance work may be done. Home-room sponsors should, of course, be selected very carefully and with due regard for the special qualifications required for such work.

Like every other agency, the home room, to be effective, should be well planned. One reason why so many home rooms are ineffective is because they are introduced with some vague idea that they will, more or less automatically, meet the needs of the pupils. Teachers do not know what they are for nor how to organize them. It is no wonder that the home-room period is so often dreaded by teachers and pupils alike and that in desperation many teachers use it as a study period or as a means of catching up on back work. An increasing number of schools are finding it desirable to have a well-formulated plan of home-room activities for the entire year or even for the four years of the high school. Some excellent outlines are now available. These usually begin with the orientation of the pupil to the new school and proceed in an orderly manner through the various problems that are likely to arise in the school life of the pupil. These outlines are best operated if they are considered to be suggestive and not entirely mandatory. The sponsor should be left relatively free to change the plan to suit the needs of his pupils and to utilize problems that may arise in his room or in the school as a whole. The best outlines give many suggested topics and attempt to stimulate the sponsor to individual planning within the large areas of problems outlined.

When the home room is well organized under competent leadership and with sufficient time to function effectively, it can be one of the most powerful factors in the guidance program.

What it can do under proper conditions is admirably shown by McKown [13] in the wealth of illustrative material he gives taken from actual home-room programs in schools scattered throughout the country.

VI. CORE-CURRICULUM TEACHER

In some sections of the country the core curriculum is being introduced, and core-curriculum or core-study teachers are taking the place of home-room sponsors in the guidance program. It is not the purpose of this section to describe the core curriculum nor appraise its value; we shall attempt merely to show how it fits into the guidance work of the school.

Basically, the core curriculum is that part of the total educational program of the school that represents the needs common to all pupils regardless of their abilities, future plans, or vocational interests. In most schools this consists of certain subjects, such as English, social studies, etc., that are required of all pupils. As it is understood and developed in many schools, the core curriculum goes beyond this and attempts to organize the school activities which represent these basic common needs in such a way as to attack these needs, not indirectly through the usual course material in English, mathematics, social studies, etc., but directly. Fundamental areas of activities and interests of life are selected which are intended to represent the entire scope of common human activities, and these are organized in sequences from the first grade through the secondary school. The number and character of these groups or areas vary with different plans. The Santa Barbara plan outlines nine areas of basic functions of human living: (1) developing and conserving human resources; (2) developing, conserving, and intelligently utilizing nonhuman resources; (3) producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services; (4) communicating; (5) transporting; (6) recreating and playing; (7) expressing and satisfying spiritual and aesthetic values; (8) organizing and governing; (9) providing for education. In the Mississippi program the areas of human activity are (1) protecting life and health, (2) making a home, (3) conserving and improving material conditions, (4) cooperating in social and civic activities, (5) getting a living, (6) securing an education, (7) expressing religious im-

[13] McKown, *op. cit.*

pulses, (8) expressing aesthetic impulses, (9) engaging in recreation. It is apparent that these "areas" are very similar to those represented in the seven objectives outlined in the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education and especially to those formulated by Bobbitt in his Los Angeles study.

Basic or core courses are organized around these areas and material and activities considered appropriate to the areas are selected and organized regardless of logically organized subject matter. Specially qualified teachers are selected as core-study teachers, and they often teach these basic courses in each of the grades of high school. These core classes are scheduled for two or more periods each day; in some schools they take up nearly
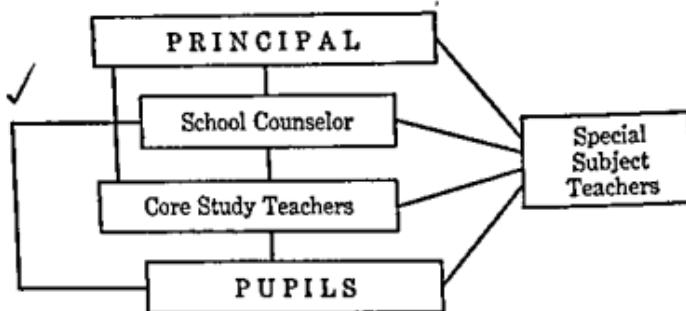
FIG. 38. A core-curriculum guidance plan.

the entire morning of each school day. The remainder of the day is given to classes in special subjects, such as oral and written English, mathematics, science, or foreign language, as the varying needs of pupils demand.

The instructional program in this plan consists of (1) classes representing basic needs, taught by specially qualified teachers for longer periods than normal through several years, and (2) special classes in the regular subjects taught by special teachers.

In theory at least, the core-study plan has many advantages for guidance over the usual plan of organization. One teacher has the same pupils for longer periods each day and usually for a series of years, making it possible for him to know each pupil very intimately; the vital problems of life are attacked directly, giving opportunity for dealing at first hand with situations in which guidance is needed. This by no means eliminates the need for the school counselor; it should make his work more effective.

The general organization under the core-curriculum plan is

roughly indicated in Fig. 38. Here the chief guidance function is performed by the counselor and the core-study teachers. The special-subject teachers deal with problems arising in the teaching of the special subjects and assist the counselor and the core-study teachers in their guidance activities.

The core-curriculum plan has not as yet been fully accepted nor has it adequately demonstrated its superiority over various cooperative plans, but it is, at least, very suggestive and may point the way to very desirable modifications in organization and procedure.

VII. INITIATING A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

1. *Importance of the Problem.* The importance of a right beginning cannot be too strongly emphasized. Many desirable plans have failed merely because of a poor start. A principal learns of some desirable practice; it has been used very successfully in other schools and should greatly improve the work in his school. He becomes enthusiastic about it; he works out a plan of organization for his school and presents it to his teachers as something that will be initiated at the beginning of the next month. After a time, he finds it is not working well; investigation discloses that some teachers are actively opposing it because they resent innovations or because it is an added burden, "one thing more"; others are passively opposing or indifferent because they do not understand what it is all about; some, while actively supporting the plan, are doing just the wrong things because they, too, misunderstand. It is difficult, indeed, to start afresh with any hope of success after such an initial failure.

2. *Need for Preparation.* Any new plan, whether it is supervised study, core curriculum, or guidance, should be carefully prepared for and introduced only after it is understood and generally accepted by teachers. Too often we forget that the basic elements for effective learning are just as important in the successful introduction of any new method or plan. These are (1) an understanding of what is to be done, (2) an acceptance of the plan, and (3) a sense of responsibility for putting it into operation. Unless these three elements are present at least in some degree, the new undertaking will not succeed. This preparation takes time and careful planning—often months or even years. Patience and the willingness to put up with delays that are inevitable in democratic methods are essential.

3. *Methods of Initiation.* It is not possible to lay down any definite plan for beginning a program of guidance; this will vary with the conditions in any school or community. A few suggestions only can be given. It is always well to begin with those guidance needs that are recognized by all teachers, of which they are already aware. Sometimes it is best not to call them "needs for *guidance*" but problem cases that disturb the teacher and interfere with teaching. An increasing recognition by teachers of elements that disturb or distract, that make it difficult to achieve the purposes of the school, is of fundamental importance. A testing program, a study of the causes of failure, a follow-up of pupils who have graduated or who have left school before graduation are among the most helpful methods of developing this recognition of needs and problems. Many schools have found the evaluations conducted under the stimulation of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards very effective in revealing pupil needs and problems and in indicating weaknesses in the educational program as organized. When the problems are recognized and weaknesses are revealed, it is usually very easy to begin a study of how the weaknesses can be removed and of what methods may be developed that will aid in the solution of the problems. This study will at once show the ineffectiveness of the usual school program and the necessity for giving some special attention to guidance techniques. It will also indicate the wisdom of placing on some one person or committee the responsibility for the development of a plan for the school. When teachers begin to recognize what the problems really are and realize their own inadequacy to meet them, they will be more ready to accept the help that can be given by someone who is specially trained for the work and who is given time from the teaching schedule to help them. This should not be done in such a way as to indicate that the teacher is to be released from all responsibility for guidance nor that she can turn over all her problems to the counselor; it is merely a plan by which each teacher may be helped to do her part in guidance more effectively. Each teacher's efforts will become more meaningful and effective if done within the framework of a total school guidance program and if coordinated with the guidance efforts of the counselor and of other teachers.

In initiating the program, most schools find it advisable to

select some teacher from the regular staff even though he has not had special guidance training, instead of importing a well-trained person from outside. The reasons for this are apparent. The teacher already knows the school, the teachers, the pupils, and the community and can at once adapt her methods to the local conditions; the other teachers know her and, if the groundwork is properly laid, are not so likely to resent the assignment of special duties to one of their own number as to one who comes from outside. In many cases the assumption of guidance responsibilities is a gradual process. The chairman of a special committee, the guidance committee, carries on his work in addition to a regular teaching schedule and gradually, as the need is felt, is released from part of the teaching load in order to do the extra things necessary. In some schools the one upon whom the chief guidance responsibility is placed is called the "vice-principal" in order to give the authority necessary for carrying out the program.

In some cases, it is not advisable to select one of the regular staff. There may be no qualified or interested person available or there may be jealousy among the teachers which would work against the success of the plan. Some well-qualified person who does not know local conditions may be the most effective person to begin the work. If the need for help has been developed, a person better qualified to give the help than anyone on the regular staff will often be accepted by the teachers. In order to succeed, such a person must have an unusually understanding and sympathetic nature and be very tactful in dealing with situations involving long-established customs and special prerogatives. In the initiation of effective guidance programs we need more teachers with a "passion for anonymity" who are interested more in getting things done than in getting credit for doing them.

Every plan for the initiation of a guidance program should include a program of in-service training for every member of the school personnel, principal, counselor, teachers, and clerks. This might well include suggested readings, faculty meetings, meetings both of the entire faculty and of groups of teachers, extension or resident courses, visiting other schools with good guidance programs, the collection of guidance materials of all

kinds, arranged in such a way as to be helpful and stimulating and placed so that they may be readily accessible for all.

REFERENCES

1. ALLEN, RICHARD D.: "Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education," Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1934. A valuable discussion of plans for the organization of guidance in public schools. This stresses the organization in Providence, R.I.

2. BREWER, JOHN M., and others: "Cases in the Administration of Guidance," pp. 178–258, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1929. Gives practical suggestions on beginning a guidance program, on the duties and responsibilities of different parts of the guidance personnel.

3. BREWER, JOHN M., and others: "History of Vocational Guidance," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. A comprehensive treatment of the vocational guidance movement including brief descriptions of various types of organization of guidance in cities and in rural districts.

4. DAVIS, FRANK G., editor: "Pupil Personnel Service," International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1948. A good reference.

5. DETJEN, MARY FORD, and ERVIN W. DETJEN: "Home Room Guidance Programs for the Junior High School Years," Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1940. A very valuable and practical book containing many suggestions for home-room programs.

6. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," rev. ed., International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949. Chapters 11 and 16 will be found especially helpful for the home room.

7. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P.: "Guidance Services in Smaller Schools," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950. A well-organized and useful reference.

8. GRUHN, WILLIAM T., and HARL R. DOUGLASS: "The Modern Junior High School," The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1947. Pages 305–310 and Chap. XII have good suggestions.

9. HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON: "Guidance in the Secondary School," D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. Chapter XII, "Organizing a Secondary School for the Guidance of Students," and Chap. XIII, "Organizing an Individual Homeroom," will be found very helpful.

10. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G.: "Administering the Guidance Program," Educational Publishers, Inc., Philadelphia, 1942. This monograph contains many helpful suggestions. The philosophy underlying the treatment is almost identical with that of this book.

11. McKOWN, HARRY C.: "Home Room Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. The most helpful part of this book is the great wealth of suggestions for home-room programs gathered from a wide variety of schools.

12. MYERS, GEORGE E.: "Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1941. Chapter XVIII

deals in a practical manner with problems connected with plans for the organization of guidance.

13. Reed, Anna Y.: "Guidance and Personnel Services in Education," Cornell University Press, Ithaca, N.Y., 1944. Chapter XVIII contains organization charts and discusses principles underlying organization.

14. Strang, Ruth: "Pupil Personnel and Guidance," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. Chapters IV and V contain many valuable suggestions regarding the organization of guidance. Pages 191–197 are especially valuable for the initiation of a guidance program.

15. Strang, Ruth: Some Current Developments in Rural Guidance, *National Education Association Journal*, 38:428–429, September, 1949. Explains how guidance of rural children is developing.

16. Strang, Ruth, and Latham Hatcher: "Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943. This book is full of suggestions for teachers in rural areas.

17. Super, Donald E.: "The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942. Chapter 15 is especially comprehensive and stimulating.

18. Warters, Jane: "High School Personnel Work Today," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946. Presents some principles basic to the organization of guidance.

19. Wright, J. C., and Donna S. Wright: "Vocational Guidance for Home Rooms," Extra-curricular Publishing Company, Keokuk, Iowa, 1937. This will be found to contain many valuable helps for home-room teachers, guidance directors, and others interested in guidance.

20. Yeager, William A.: "Administration and the Pupil," Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. Contains many helpful suggestions on the organization of guidance.

DUTIES, CHARACTERISTICS, PREPARATION, AND CERTIFICATION OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

I. National Studies of the Counselor

During the past ten years there have been many studies of the duties, responsibilities, and requirements of school counselors. Some of these have been made by individuals and some by committees representing state or national organizations. Partial studies are also contained in city, state, and national surveys. In this chapter no attempt will be made to review all these studies nor to give their conclusions; only a few will be described in detail. Those which will form the basis for our discussion have been selected because they are recent, quite comprehensive, and very significant. They are the ones made by the following: (1) a committee of the Section on Preparation for Guidance Service of the National Vocational Guidance Association (1941), (2) a committee of the Division of Professional Training and Certification of the National Vocational Guidance Association (1949), (3) an advisory committee of the War Manpower Commission, (4) a committee of the National Association of Deans of Women, (5) a committee of the National Association of State Supervisors of Guidance Services (1949), (6) Richard D. Bailey, (7) Rachel Dunaway Cox, (8) Francis C. Rosecrance, (9) Sarah M. Sturtevant, Ruth Strang, and Margaret McKim. The scope and general character of each of these will be described briefly.

1. *Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association,* (N.V.G.A.) 1941. This was a special committee of the Section on Preparation for Guidance Service and was composed of the following: Margaret E. Bennett, Mary P. Corre, Robert Hoppock, Ruth Strang, C. Gilbert Wrenn, and Arthur J. Jones, Chairman. This committee worked for several years on a study of the school counselor and was assisted by many interested and competent

542

people—school counselors, administrators, social workers, and university professors engaged in the preparation of counselors. The committee formulated a list of suggestions on the characteristics, preparation, and certification of the school counselor. These were widely circulated, reviewed, and criticized by many competent individuals; they were revised in the light of these criticisms and accepted, in general, by the Section on Preparation for Guidance Service of the Guidance Association. In appropriate places throughout this chapter the report of the committee will be quoted. In order that no misunderstanding may occur, two things should be kept in mind: (1) This report as a whole, in common with most committee reports, was never presented to the delegate assembly of the N.V.G.A. and hence cannot be said to have been officially approved by the association. (2) The author was chairman of this committee and thus was primarily responsible for the formulation of the report. For this reason it may not represent accurately the opinions of other members of the committee. It is quoted here because of its contribution to a definition or description of the work of the counselor and as a basis upon which plans for the preparation and certification of the counselor may be developed.

2. *Committee of the N.V.G.A. (1949).* In September, 1947, this committee began work on a manual for the preparation of counselors. The interest of other organizations was soon apparent and a joint committee was formed to select and describe, if possible, a core of areas of preparation that would be acceptable to all groups represented. Each of the following agencies and organizations appointed three representatives for this joint committee:

1. American College Personnel Association
2. American Psychological Association, Division of Counseling and Guidance
3. National Rehabilitation Association
4. National Vocational Guidance Association
5. U.S. Office of Education
6. National Association of Guidance Supervisors
7. U.S. Employment Service, Federal Security Agency
8. Veterans' Administration

This committee met in Washington, D.C., Dec. 4 and 5, 1948, and, after intensive consideration, came to substantial agree-

ment upon a common core of areas of preparation for counselors in the fields represented by the joint committee, and upon the general formulation of the areas. The final formulation was made by correspondence and approved by the representatives. This approval does not necessarily carry with it the endorsement of the organizations represented. The conclusions of the joint committee constitute Part I of the manual called "Counselor Preparation." Four more areas were added by the Committee of the N.V.G.A. and are given in Part II.

3. *Committee of the War Manpower Commission.* In 1943 the Professional and Technical Division of the War Manpower Commission appointed an Advisory Committee on Vocational Counseling to make a study and report on the supply, training, and placement of vocational counselors for Federal, state, and local agencies to be used in the advising of ex-service men and displaced workers during the readjustment period. This committee consisted of seventeen men selected from various agencies of the Federal government, from personnel departments in business, and from universities, under the chairmanship of Dr. Ernest J. Jaqua. The manual "The Training of Vocational Counselors" was the work of this committee.

4. *Committee of the National Association of Deans of Women.* This committee was first appointed in 1938 for the purpose of investigating the certification of high-school deans. It has served under various chairmen, and has made several reports dealing mostly with the certification of counselors and deans. Although there are certain differences between its conception of the function of the dean and the counselor and that given in this chapter, the two are sufficiently in agreement so that we may include the work of this committee in our discussion.

5. *Committee of the National Association of State Supervisors of Guidance Services.* This committee studied the problems connected with the duties and responsibilities of counselors and their training in a series of conferences. The several reports of these conferences were published in 1949 and contain many important suggestions. This series of publications has the following titles: (1) Duties, Standards and Qualifications of Counselors, (2) The Basic Course, (3) Occupational Information, (4) Analysis of the Individual, (5) Counseling Techniques, (6) Supervised Prac-

tice in Guidance Service, (7) In-service Preparation, and (8) Administration Relationships of the Guidance Program.

6. *Study by Richard J. Bailey.* This study was a doctoral dissertation made in New York University under the supervision of Anna Y. Reed as chairman of the committee and completed in 1940. The purposes of the study are indicated by the following questions from the abstract of the thesis:

1. Is there historical justification for imposing any occupational restriction on those who desire to perform personnel functions in the secondary schools?

2. If restrictions are justifiable, what fundamental guiding principles are available for the determination of proper restrictions?

3. What are the present practices relative to the preparation, certification, and selection of personnel workers, and to their titles, status, and duties?

4. What is the trend of authoritative thought relative to standards of preparation, certification, and selection of personnel workers?

5. Do agreements exist, relative to improved standards, in the current best judgments of experts most interested in the problem—employing authorities, certificating officials, training specialists, experienced personnel workers?

The sources of the data and the general methods used are thus described by the author:

The materials for this study have been gathered from four sources: (1) published works, bulletins, and literature dealing with the history of licensure in all its phases, the history and development of certification of teachers and specialists in the teaching profession, and the requirements set up for admission to such professions as medicine, law, and social work; (2) the annual reports and special bulletins issued by eleven committees established by guidance and personnel associations to investigate the problem of improved standards for functionaries; (3) the literature in the field of personnel, comprising books and articles written during the period 1908–1939; (4) direct information concerning the status of preparation, duties, etc., of the various personnel functionaries, obtained from a survey of approximately six hundred individuals now engaged in personnel service in the secondary schools; (5) jury agreements as to improved standards, obtained by submitting a previously tested check list to approximately one hundred and fifty experts most interested in the problem. Included were employing authorities, certificating officials, training specialists, and experienced personnel workers.

7. Study by Rachel Dunaway Cox. This is also a doctoral dissertation. It was undertaken at the suggestion of the committee of the N.V.G.A. in 1941 and sponsored by them in a general way. A committee of the Graduate School of the University of Pennsylvania was in immediate charge of the study. The general purpose, scope, and methods are thus described by Mrs. Cox:

This investigation is a study of the counselor in the secondary school. The problem is to discover, in the case of a group of selected counselors,

1. What functions the counselors perform.
2. What experiences lie back of the competencies they bring to the performance of these functions.
3. What additional experiences designed to enrich their skills, knowledge, and insights do they think they need for a more adequate discharge of their functions.
4. What patterns of function and experience, if any, have been revealed by this study of these counselors.
5. What relationships exist between the patterns of function and of experience reported by these counselors.[1]

The procedure of the investigation was to inquire into the function and preparation, the experience, and the thinking of the 100 carefully selected school counselors and deans in the secondary schools of the country, through personal interviews, group conferences, and questionnaires.

Each counselor studied was pointed out as being unusually able by at least two persons qualified to judge. The people who made these recommendations were school superintendents and principals, college professors charged with the training of counselors, deans, state department of education officials, supervisors of counselors, and directors of guidance. Each counselor had a minimum of three years' experience in counseling. All sections of the country were represented and all types of communities, from large cities to small villages. The types of schools were as follows: large city, medium city, small city, suburban, and small town high schools with cosmopolitan curriculum; village high schools with almost entirely college preparatory curriculum; vocational high schools with a varied curriculum; com-

[1] Cox, Rachel Dunaway, "Counselors and Their Work," Archives Press, Harrisburg, Pa., 1945.

mercial high schools; junior colleges, attached to the public school system—both residential and nonresidential; consolidated county high schools.

The studies previously made by Bailey, Edgerton, and others were mostly extensive and statistical and sought to give a picture of the status and duties of counselors and deans throughout the country. This investigation is intensive and nonstatistical for the most part. It seeks to give an intimate personal picture of 100 successful counselors, as they function in secondary schools. It is not merely a job analysis; it includes not only their duties and responsibilities, but what they think about them; whether the work assigned helps or interferes with what they consider to be their real job. It studies not only their functions, but the training and experience which, in their opinion, contributed or did not contribute to the successful performance of these functions. It is thus not a substitute for the extensive studies, but rather a contribution to the study of the counselor from another angle.

These studies will be freely drawn upon in the following discussion. In each case appropriate references will be given.

II. PLACE AND FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

1. *Organization of the Guidance Service of the School.* The chief guidance person in the school, whatever his name, functions in connection with varied types of other personnel, each of which is connected in some way with guidance. There is general agreement with these principles of organization as formulated by the Committee of the N.V.G.A. (1941).

a. Adequate guidance service in any school is dependent upon the cooperative, coordinated activities of the entire school personnel. Every individual who comes into contact with the pupil performs some guidance service, good or bad, and should possess certain minimum essentials in understanding, insight, information, and skill.

b. Administrators, classroom teachers, home-room teachers, sponsors of student activities—all have very important functions in a guidance program, but they alone, either singly or in cooperation, cannot provide a satisfactory or effective guidance program.

c. Different types of specialists are needed. Even when teachers become better prepared, we shall continue to need specialists to care for many of the increasing number of problems that will be detected by the better trained teacher.

d. A guidance program that will meet the needs of all the students is dependent upon a well-trained coordinating agent such as the school counselor.

e. The organization of the service will vary in different schools and the functions performed by the different members of the school personnel will vary; the proper functioning of the entire school personnel as a coordinated unit is the important consideration.[2]

2. *Types of Titles and Services.* All studies have shown the great variety of titles of the chief guidance officer and the numerous and varied duties performed. The most frequent titles given are school counselor, counselor, vocational adviser, guidance counselor, dean, and assistant principal. Bailey found the most frequent duties performed were the following in order of frequency: (1) personal advisement, (2) planning and supervising guidance services, (3) making community contacts, (4) interpretation and application of tests, (5) planning and supervising extracurricular activities.

The functions performed by the 100 selected counselors in the study by Cox do not lend themselves to as definite classification as those in the study by Bailey. This is because it is a case study and gives a more intimate and detailed picture of what the counselor does. Classified very roughly, the general functions of these 100 counselors are as follows in the order of frequency: (1) work with parents, (2) educational-vocational-emotional guidance of pupils, (3) supervision of tests, giving and interpreting test results, (4) cooperation with law-enforcing agencies, (5) consultation with employers, (6) discipline, (7) placement, (8) coordinating the guidance program of the school, (9) home-room supervision, (10) cooperation with community guidance agencies, (11) teaching, (12) chaperoning parties and social needs, (13) follow-up of pupils who have left school. It is not possible to tell from this study exactly which duties help and which interfere with the basic work of individual counseling. Some counselors have found every one of the functions they perform to be helpful in their work; nearly half feel that even administering discipline has been useful to them. This may be because successful counselors are alert and utilize every opportunity in their

[2] The Preparation and Certification of the School Counselor, *Occupations,* 19:533–534 (condensed).

varied experience to learn more about individuals and how to help them.

The patterns of function found in the study by Cox have greater significance than a mere enumeration of the functions themselves. Seven different patterns of function are distinguishable. "Most of these patterns overlap at a number of points, having in common certain important elements. At others they diverge, so that the counselor in one school carries responsibilities which the counselor in another school does not." These seven patterns together with the number of counselors in each pattern are given by Cox as follows:

A. He handles all types of guidance for the school or for pupils assigned him; he coordinates the school's guidance program; he does placement. Thirty-two counselors show this pattern.

B. The same as *A* but he does no placement. Twenty-four are in this group.

C. The same as *A* but does not coordinate the guidance program. Seventeen counselors are in this group.

D. He handles all types of guidance but does not coordinate the guidance program and does no placement. Twenty are working in this pattern.

E. He handles only vocational-educational guidance. He does no placement, is not the coordinator of the guidance program, and rarely handles emotional problems. Five counselors are classified here.

F. Handles emotional guidance only: no educational-vocational guidance, no placement, and is not a coordinator of the program. One counselor is in this pattern.

G. Does placement only. One counselor only does placement exclusively.[3]

Patterns *A, B, C,* and *D* might be grouped together as indicating the pattern of functions performed by ninety-three of the 100 counselors. They are responsible for educational-vocational-emotional guidance in the school; forty-nine do placement also and fifty-six coordinate the program of guidance.

3. *Functions of the School Counselor Defined.*[4] In the present stage of development of guidance and personnel work it is

<hr>

[3] Cox, Rachel Dunaway, *op. cit.,* p. 175, adapted.

[4] Dunsmoor, Clarence C., and Leonard M. Miller, "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," rev. ed., pp. 36–41, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1949. This chart provides a very helpful list of the primary and secondary duties of the school counselor.

difficult to define the function of the counselor as distinct from
that of other members of the school staff or of other members of
the force of personnel workers. The counselor is the one whose
chief attention is centered upon the individual and his adjust-
ment and development. This function is, or should be, per-
formed also by every member of the school staff, for this is the
fundamental purpose of the school. The school counselor is evi-
dently one who counsels, but so do teachers, principals, school
nurses, and registrars. As defined by some state departments of
education, the counselor is one who spends at least half of his
time in "counseling." In the descriptions of the work of the
counselor many other duties are described. This would be the
most practical approach to a statement of what the school coun-
selor is if we carefully define what his duties are. In common
conversation we often say that anyone who teaches is a teacher,
anyone who counsels is a counselor, anyone who does plumbing
is a plumber, and anyone who does washing and ironing is a
launderer. This is not necessarily undesirable in ordinary con-
versation; it even conveys a useful idea and seems to promote
a consciousness of kinship in work. But when we are attempt-
ing to define a special type of worker, such generalized state-
ments are quite useless and confusing. There would then be no
use for a "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" which attempts to
distinguish between one type of worker and another. Since a
large part of the purpose of defining the term is to help pro-
fessionalize the job and to indicate what sort of service the coun-
selor should render, we should attempt to go deeper than the
mere externals of meaning.

The counselor is the key guidance worker, who is personally
qualified, professionally trained, and who specializes in this type
of service as a career.

The committee of the N.V.G.A. (1941), for want of a better
name, gave the title of "school counselor" to the chief guidance
officer in the school, and outlined the general functions of the
position as follows:

> The term "school counselor" is used to indicate the personnel worker
> whose chief responsibility is to stimulate, initiate, develop and coor-
> dinate the guidance work of the entire school. He will in many
> schools also perform some one or more forms of specialized guidance

service; what this is will be determined by the type of organization of the guidance activities in the school and the type of other personnel available. He must act as guidance leader and as a resource person in the school and should have superior qualifications and training for the task. In many schools he will be the only personnel worker and be directly responsible for the entire guidance program.[5]

This statement of function is not in complete accordance with the actual functions found in the study by Cox. In this study, the function common to 93 per cent of the counselors studied was "work with individuals in educational-vocational-emotional guidance"; only 56 per cent actually coordinated the guidance program. However, the personal conferences with the counselors and the trends observed indicate that the coordinating, stimulating, and initiating function is being more and more recognized as the function that differentiates the school counselor from those who merely counsel.

The State Guidance Committee of California, in its tentative statement, makes a useful distinction in the duties of the guidance personnel. These two general functions are: (1) Direct service to students and (2) additional services required for a coordinated service.

The Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services lists the following as duties of the counselor: (1) Providing counseling and its supporting activities to assist individuals to make adjustments and to formulate and carry out plans; (2) aiding school administrators, teachers, and other staff members to perform better their daily tasks of working with individual students and parents; (3) presenting and interpreting data through guidance services as a partial basis for total school program planning. It is interesting to note that the last duty might include actual teaching.

4. *School Dean.* It is difficult to make any clear-cut distinction between the functions of the dean in the secondary school and those of the counselor. As described by the committee of the National Association of Deans of Women, the functions of the high-school dean are:

1. To study individuals in order to ascertain as accurately and completely as possible their abilities, interests, and their needs.

[5]JONES, ARTHUR J., Chairman, The Preparation and Certification of the School Counselor, *Occupations*, 19:534, April, 1941 (condensed).

2. To mobilize resources in school, home, and community so students may explore and utilize them as they make choices.

3. To assist individual students to make choices and to evaluate their experiences and progress.

4. To supervise extracurricular activities.

5. To organize, coordinate, and supervise the guidance program of the school.[6]

Although these functions are largely the same as those outlined for the school counselor, in actual practice the dean is more of an administrator than the counselor and is usually more directly concerned with problems of the administration of discipline. Some of the differences are revealed in the following description by Dorothy C. Stratton of a "typical day" of the dean.

8:00	Conference with Mary Jones regarding repeated absences.
8:15	Adjustment of academic program for girl who must go to work at 1:30 each afternoon.
8:30	Conference with high-school principal and dean of boys on plan of enrolling students from junior high schools.
9:00–9:40	Teach—World History class.
9:50	Conference with class sponsor regarding plans for sophomore party.
10:20	Conference with senior girl regarding college entrance.
10:40	Conference with president of parent-teacher association regarding fathers' night.
11:30	Conference with Ruth Smith regarding poor work in United States history.
11:45	Conference with head of physical education department regarding plans for underweight girls.
12:00–12:45	Lunch.
12:45–1:15	Series of brief conferences with students regarding cutting, excuses, and so forth.
1:15–1:45	Conference with Girls' League officers to plan for reception to new girls.
1:45–2:30	Meeting of committee to plan the home-room program.
2:30–3:00	Check up on seniors with delinquency notices.

[6] Excerpts from various numbers of the *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women,* 1938–1941.

3:00–3:30	Miscellaneous period; mostly students stopping in at the close of school on minor matters.
3:30–4:00	Conference with parents of girl who has been absent because of illness.
4:00–4:30	Work on talk to local Y.W.C.A. group.
4:30–5:15	Home for breathing spell.
5:30	Dinner and speech.
9:00	Home.[7]

III. Personal Characteristics of the School Counselor

There have been many attempts to list the characteristics of the successful counselor. Many of these are very suggestive and helpful, but nearly all are, as a whole, very unsatisfactory. Among the reasons for this are: (1) The lists represent merely the opinions of the person who makes them; they reflect his own preconceptions and are supported only by his own experience. (2) They do not distinguish between the counselor and other members of the school personnel. (3) The traits of successful counselors vary so much that it is difficult, if not impossible, to select one list that is satisfactory. (4) It is the interrelationship between different characteristics, the pattern of characteristics, that is important, not the presence or absence of any one trait. In the following discussion we shall discuss only three of these lists. The characteristics listed are included under the general heading Personal Characteristics, broadly interpreted; they do not include specific skills or knowledge necessary to effective functioning.

1. *Characteristics Listed in the Study by Bailey.* On the basis of evidence obtained from an analysis of backgrounds basic to the study, of present practices relative to the problem, and of standards recommended by various committees of guidance and personnel associations, by individual writers in the field, and by a qualified jury established for the purpose, the following characteristics essential to success as a counselor are given by Bailey:

In addition to being endowed with personal qualities essential for all educators (fairness, sincerity, social culture, health, etc.) the counselor should conspicuously exhibit (1) a sympathetic understand-

[7] STRATTON, DOROTHY C., *What Does a Dean Do?*, *Journal of the National Education Association*, 23:211, November, 1934.

ing of youth, (2) emotional stability, (3) approachability, (4) broad scope of knowledge and interests, and (5) good judgment and common sense.

2. *Characteristics Revealed in the Study by Cox.* The study by Cox represents quite a different approach from that by Bailey. It is in reality a series of case studies of 100 counselors who were judged by at least two competent people to be successful in their job. It is an attempt, by direct and indirect means, by questionnaires and personal and group conferences, to secure pictures of the patterns of characteristics and competencies of each of the 100 successful counselors. Among other things, it includes the opinions of the counselors themselves regarding their own points of strength and weakness, what made them have the degree of success they had, and what interfered with their work. These points were often revealed quite incidentally and indirectly. This study gives a much more complete and accurate picture of the characteristics of the successful counselor than any other study thus far made. There are, in all, twenty-four characteristics listed. These may best be seen in Table XL on page 559. There are only two items in this list that are not also given by at least one other study. These are (1) understanding of people different from himself in culture, race, religion, or social and economic status, and (2) a sense of mission, "a lively sense of having committed their efforts to a work that is larger and more important than themselves." Four are mentioned by only one other study. One characteristic revealed incidentally in the study of the selected counselors and not given in this table seems to be of unusual importance. This is the marked ability to secure, from a wide variety of experiences (at home, in school, in social relations, on the job), knowledges, insights, understandings, sympathies, interests that are of extreme importance in counseling.

3. *Characteristics Listed in the Report of the N.V.G.A. Committee (1941).* The list of suggested desirable personal characteristics prepared by the committee of the N.V.G.A. represents the judgment of the committee based upon the discussions and conferences of interested and qualified individuals who contributed to its work. This suggested list was constructed for the purpose of assisting in the selection of those who should be accepted for the courses preparing for the work of counselor;

they were also considered to be basic for certification. For this reason, with each group of characteristics is given a suggestion of means by which the presence of the characteristic may be determined.

a. A stable and well-adjusted personality.

This essential characteristic in the counselor may be estimated to some extent by previous records, in the interview, from teachers' and supervisors' ratings, and through the use of adjustment inventories.

b. A high degree of intellectual capacity. This is essential for satisfactory graduate training as well as for effective leadership in a somewhat pioneering field.

The use of college aptitude tests as well as a scrutiny of the equality of undergraduate work is helpful in the estimate of intellectual capacity.

c. A fundamental liking for persons.

This can be estimated from the previous school activity record, from his own or associates' ratings upon how he likes to be with people, the use of interest blanks or inventories, the interview, and the extent to which the candidate has voluntarily contributed leadership to such child and youth activities as Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., Scouts, summer camps, the Sunday school, and similar organizations, and has been selected by youth for assistance.

d. A sympathetic and objective understanding of people, including that phase of social approach that readily promotes personal confidence and establishes rapport.

This may be estimated by leadership in group activities and experiences in helping in the adjustments of youth.

e. Facility in establishing wholesome, effective, personal, and social relations, including ability to work cooperatively with other people.

Authentic records of experiences in and out of school involving contacts with fellow students, teachers, and young people will prove to be valuable in ascertaining the extent to which any candidate for admission has this characteristic.

f. Ability to stimulate students and colleagues and to challenge their best efforts in working for ends that they come to accept as desirable.

Records of experiences in which the candidate has been a leader in different kinds of enterprises suitable to his age and position, in student activities, in church and community enterprises, and in summer camps will be helpful.

g. Perspective—ability to see and understand the total situation and the separate parts in relation to the whole. This involves perspective and, in a measure, the ability to detach oneself from the details of a situation.

> This can be only roughly estimated from school records, teachers' estimates, and personal contact with the candidate.

h. An understanding and appreciation of one's own limitations in dealing with certain areas of problems and with certain individuals.

> Reports of supervisors and principals who have observed the activities of the candidate and personal interviews will be helpful in judging this characteristic.

i. Broad general knowledges and wide interests.

> Evidence of this may be sought in records of undergraduate courses, of travel and other types of experience, and of the results of comprehensive tests. The interviews should also assist materially in judging the attainment of this desirable characteristic.

j. An understanding of classroom conditions, teaching responsibilities, and pupil-teacher relationships. This is considered essential by a large number of workers because the school counselor, one of whose most important functions is to work with students, should know from firsthand experience what are the problems of students and opportunities for guidance in the classroom.

> Teaching experience gives desirable practice in work with groups as well as an opportunity to understand individual pupils. It will usually involve a minimum of two years of successful experience. The majority opinion is that the specialized training for counseling should be begun after certification for teaching and after some actual teaching experience. It will often be taken while teaching, through extension work or some other form of in-service training. Many consider this the most desirable method.

k. An understanding of working conditions and employee-employer relationships in jobs outside of educational work and in nonprofessional vocational life. Such an understanding is essential for those who expect to have considerable responsibility for vocational counseling.

> Records of part-time work experience during the undergraduate career, of summer work, as well as of one or more years of continuous experience in some remunerative job, may reveal the degree to which such an understanding has been attained.

l. Understanding of social and economic conditions and influences—general and local. The school counselor should under-

stand the social and economic influences that affect the lives of students and the educational program. He should be able to utilize community resources in facilitating the development of individuals with respect to health, social relationships, occupation, recreation, and civic activities. It is essential that the school counselor should see both the student and the school in an enlarged social and economic perspective if his work with the individual and in the school is to be effective.

This can usually be only partially attained before the extended preparation but, unless there is clear evidence of some degree of such competence at the time of selection, it is not probable that the special preparation will result in a satisfactory degree of attainment. The means used for *c, e,* and *i* will be useful here.

Although the suggestions regarding methods of determining the presence of these characteristics will be found helpful, it should be understood that there are as yet no established standards for some of them, especially for personal characteristics. Good judgment and a healthy respect for the difficulty of the functions to be performed by guidance workers will still have to be the determining factors in decisions to be made as to who should be encouraged to take specialized training. The appraisal of any one of these sets of characteristics must be in relation to an understanding of other and related characteristics. The functioning individual as a total personality is the important consideration. No one of the factors of high intelligence, broad experience, a pleasant personality, or an earnest desire to become a guidance worker is in itself sufficient to provide a basis for admitting a student to this advanced program; although all of these, in varying patterns and in varying degrees of emphasis, are essential elements in the personality of a prospective school counselor. It should further be emphasized that it is the possession of the characteristic that is essential, not the experience or training by which the individual may be expected to attain it.

4. *Committee of the State Supervisors of Guidance Services.* In addition to the characteristics already mentioned, this committee includes the following: patience, tact, poise, a sense of humor, a sense of worth, freedom from withdrawing tendencies, the ability to profit by mistakes, and the ability to take criticism. Many of these were, in all probability, assumed by other committees to be necessary not only for counselors but for teachers.

5. *Committee of the National Association of Deans of Women.* Although the recommended requirements for certification presuppose the presence of certain personal characteristics, no specific list has been prepared by this committee. Consultation with the committee has revealed no substantial disagreement with the list of the characteristics given under Sec. 3 above.

6. *Comparative Summary.* Table XL gives a comparative view of the personal characteristics listed in five studies. Twenty-four reasonably distinct characteristics are listed. The amount of agreement is indicated in the last column. Five of the studies agreed on five of the characteristics, and eight agree on four; thus there was very substantial agreement on fourteen of the twenty-four characteristics. Only two characteristics were listed by only one study; this was the study by Cox, which gives a much more detailed and intimate picture than any of the others.

The agreement already noted is probably considerably less than is actually the case. This is because the total list was not used in all the studies as a check list. Only those characteristics that were actually mentioned in each study are checked. If the entire list had been used in each study there is every probability that more characteristics would have been checked. For example, the two listed by Cox not found in any of the others— (1) sense of mission and (2) understanding of people different from himself—would probably have been checked by studies 5 and 11. This is apparent from the general tenor of the discussion in these two studies. Likewise the five listed by only two studies—(1) fairness, (2) common sense, (3) interest in people, (4) flexibility and adaptability, (5) awareness of one's own limitations—probably were either taken for granted by the other investigators or did not occur to them when the studies were being made. Taking everything into consideration, it seems probable that there is substantial agreement on nearly all of the twenty-four characteristics listed.

Patterns of characteristics are, of course, much more significant than mere lists of individual characteristics. It would be very interesting and helpful if we could secure such patterns to guide us in the selection of counselors. Such studies as that of Cox are probably the ones that we could rely on to give any reliable conclusions on this question. Although, in this study, all the characteristics listed in Table XL were present to some degree,

TABLE XL.   PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL COUNSELORS

(The number below each name indicates the source in the references at the end of this chapter)

Personal characteristics	Bailey (1)	Cox (2)	Jones (7)	Rose-crance (12)	Sturte-vant (14)	Number agreeing
1. Fairness	x	x	..	..	..	2
2. Sincerity	x	x	..	..	..	2
3. "Personality"	..	x	x	..	x	4
4. Good character and wholesome philosophy	..	x	x	..	x	3
5. Common sense	x	x	x	x	x	5
6. Health	..	x	x	..	..	2
7. Emotional stability	x	x	x	..	..	3
8. Approachability, friendliness	x	x	x	x	x	5
9. Ability to get along with people	..	x	x	x	x	4
10. Sympathetic understanding of youth	x	x	x	x	x	5
11. Interest in people	..	x	x	..	..	2
12. Understanding of people different from himself	..	x	..	..	..	1
13. Flexibility and adaptability	..	x	..	..	x	2
14. Intelligence, mental alertness	..	x	x	x	x	4
15. Social culture	x	x	x	..	x	4
16. Broad knowledge and interests	x	x	x	..	x	4
17. Leadership	..	x	x	x	x	4
18. Awareness of one's own limitations	..	x	x	..	..	2
19. Professional attitude	..	x	x	x	x	4
20. Sense of mission	..	x	..	..	..	1
21. Interest in guidance and personnel work	..	x	x	x	x	4
22. Understanding of classroom conditions	x	x	x	x	x	5
23. Understanding of working conditions	..	x	x	x	..	3
24. Understanding of social and economic conditions	..	x	x	..	x	3

this degree varied greatly. Even with the rough estimates possible in such a study it is clear that one counselor would be outstanding in one characteristic or group of characteristics, while another would be outstanding in another. The profiles were by no means identical. The sense of mission, common sense, intelligence, and awareness of his own limitations of one counselor would enable him to do effective work even though he did not have the detailed knowledge of psychology, occupational conditions, and testing that other equally successful counselors had. It would seem, then, from the study by Cox, that within the limits of the characteristics noted, it is not possible to select any one group of characteristics that should be present to an outstanding degree in order to secure success. More than this, no clearly defined patterns have appeared that will enable us to state that, to be successful, a counselor must have this, that, or the other pattern. The only safe course at present is to look into the total pattern of characteristics and the relationship of each characteristic to the other characteristics and to the total pattern. Common sense and a due regard for the limitations of our present knowledge, techniques, and methods are indispensable.

IV. PREPARATION OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

1. *Present Status of Preparation.* As revealed by Bailey's study, the present status of the preparation of personnel functionaries in secondary schools is as follows: [8]

(1) Over 60 per cent hold a master's degree, and 87 per cent of all workers have taken courses beyond the highest degrees they hold. (2) Approximately one-third of all functionaries majored in social science or English as undergraduates, the percentage of specialization in all other subjects being widely scattered; the majority of personnel workers specialized in guidance and education as graduate students. (3) Ninety-eight per cent had teaching experience before appointment to counseling positions, the average length of such experience being eleven years. (4) Approximately 85 per cent of all personnel workers had some experience in fields other than teaching, the experience of the majority, however, being limited to one type, principally in business or in youth activities outside of school. (5) Professional courses taken by the majority of personnel workers include principles of education, principles of guidance, tests and measurements, soci-

[8] From BAILEY, R. J., abstract of Ph.D. thesis.

ology, economics, and adolescent psychology. Of all the courses taken, mental hygiene, techniques of counseling, and adolescent psychology were judged most valuable; of little value to the work of the counselor were principles of education, biology, and economics.

2. *Recommendations by a Jury.* The following recommendations regarding preparations are made by the jury described in Bailey's study.[9] (This jury consisted of 147 persons, including employers and certifying agencies, professors of education, and experienced workers.)

1. Degrees. The bachelor's degree should be a minimum requirement for all types of personnel workers. The master's degree is highly desirable, particularly for such functionaries as deans and general advisers.

2. Teaching experience. Previous experience in teaching should be required of all personnel functionaries. Suggested prerequisite lengths are: for the dean—five years; for the general adviser and vocational counselor—three years.

3. Experience in fields other than teaching. Experience in meeting the public and in youth activities (outside of school) should be a basic certification requirement for all types of personnel functionaries. In addition to such experience, it is suggested that two years' experience in such fields as social case work and business be required of general advisers; three years in such fields as industry, business, placement, and business personnel be prerequisite to certification for vocational counseling, and that administrative experience be required of deans.

4. Specialization in personnel. Intensive training in the specialized aspects of guidance and personnel, and in related fields, should be required of all functionaries.

5. Professional courses. Evidence of adequate preparation for personnel work in general is found in the degree to which candidates have had training in the following fields: psychology (adolescent, general, educational); education (principles, philosophy, character, tests and measurements, organization, and administration), sociology, mental hygiene, community relationships. Additional evidence of preparation for the work of dean are such courses as: extracurricular activities, school administration, and social case work; for the specialized activities of the vocational counselor: economics (labor problems), vocational education, methods of utilizing occupational information, research studies in occupations, placement problems.

[9] *Ibid.,* pp. 152, 153.

3. *Desirable Elements of Preparation Revealed in the Study by Cox.* This investigation sought to find (1) the courses that had been taken in certain areas, (2) the experiences aside from courses which the counselors had had in certain areas, and (3) whether or not they considered the experiences and courses valuable or would have been valuable had they had them. The first two of these are presented in Tables XLI and XLII.

Only one of these counselors is not a college graduate, thirty-two have bachelors' degrees only, sixty-two have masters' degrees, and five have doctors' degrees. Nearly all the thirty-two college graduates have taken nearly enough graduate work for the master's degree. From Table XLI we can see that practically all have had courses in education, guidance, and personnel work, and in the area of psychobiological relationships, and over two-thirds in socioeconomics and tests and measurements. Comparatively few have had courses in social case work, psychiatry, or mental hygiene. There is practically no work reported in methods of group leadership and in emotional development.

Although the counselors felt that practically all the courses taken had been helpful to them, certain ones were of special value. These were courses in guidance and personnel work, tests and measurements, social case work, and in the area of psychobiological relationships. The needs they noted especially were for more or more effective work in the following fields:

1. Personality problems.
2. Tests and measurements.
3. Placement.
4. Psychobiological factors in adjustment and development.
5. Counseling techniques.
6. Organization and administration of guidance.

They expressed a special need for a different type of course in the field of psychobiological relationships; one that deals more with the medical aspects and gives information about defects in malfunction and nutrition and how to deal with them. Some express the belief that many of the courses should be in connection with in-service training rather than preliminary to entrance upon the job.

Table XLII shows some of the types of experience of these counselors. Practically all have taught, and over three-fourths

TABLE XLI. PROFESSIONAL COURSES TAKEN BY 100 SUCCESSFUL COUNSELORS

Areas of courses	Number of courses taken	Number taking course	Total taking courses
Education	1 2 3 4+	1 2 6 85	95
Guidance and personnel work	1 2 3–4 5–8 9+	11 11 28 28 8	92
Psychobiological relationships	1 2–3 4+	10 52 30	93
Socioeconomics	1 2 3	39 23 17	79
Tests and measurements	1 2 3+	25 25 18	68
Social case work	...	..	8
Mental hygiene	...	..	47
Psychiatry (lectures)	...	..	25

The discrepancies in the last two columns are present because some reported taking courses but did not report the number taken.

have had experience in some form of business and industry for periods ranging from one month to over five years. Very few have had experience in social work. Other types of experience are difficult to classify.

The number of different areas reported by each counselor was as follows: four counselors had experience in all six areas; four

TABLE XLII. EXPERIENCES IN CERTAIN AREAS OF 100 SUCCESSFUL COUNSELORS

Areas of experiences	Length of experience	Number having experience	Total having experience
Teaching	1–3 years	2	98
	4–9 years	19	
	10–14 years	26	
	15–24 years	36	
	25 years	15	
Business and industry	1–6 months	16	78
	7–12 months	4	
	1–2 years	14	
	3–4 years	22	
	5 years	15	
Social work	....	..	13

in five areas; thirteen in four areas; forty in three areas; thirty-eight in two areas; and one in only one area. These areas of experience were found combined in different ways to produce seventeen different patterns of experience or preparation. The pattern most frequently encountered was one in which teaching experience was combined with training in personnel and guidance, reported by thirty-four counselors. Next in frequency was a pattern combining teaching experience, work in business or industry, and training in personnel and guidance, reported by twenty-six counselors. Third in frequency, though much less frequent than the other two, was a pattern combining teaching experience, extensive training in tests and measurements, experience in business or industry, and training in personnel and guidance. The other patterns were scattered in diverse ways, no more than four counselors reporting any one of them.

From the reports it is practically impossible to select types of experience that seem to the counselors to be of special importance. All types are reported as having been helpful and significant. Perhaps one may say that the most significant point revealed is that these counselors have an unusual ability to get from any type of experience something of value for their work

as counselors. Work with people different from themselves in race, religion, and socioeconomic status has made them more understanding and sympathetic toward others; experience in business and industry has not only contributed to their knowledge of occupational conditions but has given them breadth of vision and a knowledge and appreciation of the problems of people different from themselves.

4. *Suggestions of the Committee of the N.V.G.A.* (1941). The suggestions regarding preparation of the school counselor made by the committee of the N.V.G.A. are organized in a different way from those of two studies. The specialized training here described presupposes the broad undergraduate education and specialized preparation for teaching that is represented by a college degree and the training for the secondary-school teacher. This should mean that at least the elementary understandings and skills listed under *a, b, c,* and *d,* below, should have been attained. They are represented, in general, by the following: biology, sociology, general and educational psychology, principles of education, general and special methods, the curriculum, tests and measurements, and an introductory course in guidance. In the following list the emphasis is placed upon the attainment of the objectives rather than on the accumulation of semester credits. No semester credits are indicated. Each training institution must assume responsibility both for the development of appropriate courses and for the establishment of the means of estimating the attainment of the objectives set up as desirable.

The preparation of the school counselor should be directed toward the attainment of the following competencies as a minimum. Areas of courses considered suitable are indicated.

a. Knowledge of the facts and understanding of the principles of individual growth, development, and adjustment.

Functional biology or physiology; psychology of individual differences; personality development; psychology of social relationships; physical and mental hygiene; psychiatry.

b. Knowledge of the methods of appraising the growth, development, characteristics, and adjustments of individuals.

Tests and measurements; statistical interpretation; clinical techniques; varieties of informal methods suitable for use in school situations.

c. Understanding of the principles underlying social and economic life and a knowledge of social, economic, and industrial trends as they affect the lives of individuals.

Sociology, economics, industrial relations, and wide experiences.

d. Understanding of the purpose, scope, and organization of educational programs.

Curriculum workshops; courses in the curriculum of the elementary and the secondary school.

e. Understanding of the principles, methods, and practices of pupil personnel work, knowledge of the practical aspects of work with individuals and with groups, and some demonstrated competency in such work.

Guidance and personnel work, social case work, counseling techniques, use of case records, and group work methods; participation in case conferences; internship service under competent supervision.

f. Knowledge of survey methods and methods of placement and follow-up.

This may be partially attained through courses such as those indicated in *e* and partially through internship experience.

g. Specialized competencies in some areas of personnel work beyond the general competencies needed by all counselors. This is based upon the probability that the counselor may be called upon to perform some specialized service not otherwise provided in the school.

The following are suggested as the most important:

(1) Knowledge of occupations and occupational trends and qualifications of various types of workers, and competence in the handling of occupational information.

Courses in economics, industry, vocational education, occupations, business and industrial experience.

(2) Specialized techniques in vocational placement and follow-up.

Courses in guidance, methods of placement and follow-up, internship service.

(3) Skill in the diagnosis and treatment of certain types of personal and social maladjustment.

Courses in applied psychology, social case work, mental hygiene, psychiatry, internship service.

(4) Specialized techniques in social case work such as are approved by accredited schools of social work.

The means suggested for the attainment of these objectives are appropriate courses, internship service, and other types of experience. The training institution itself should be so organ-

ized and administered that students will experience for themselves effective guidance practices.

It is not possible or desirable to indicate definitely how much time should be allotted to each type of course or experience. The objective to be kept always in mind is the competence of the counselor; this results only from the proper integration of characteristics and may be attained by individuals in different ways.

The preparation indicated here as essential represents the preparation needed for the full-time counselor who would be eligible for the permanent certificate. The minimum standard for the first few years of work of the full-time counselor would be somewhat less than this, and that for the part-time counselor in the small school much less.

5. *Areas of Preparation Outlined by the Committee of the N.V.G.A.* (1949). In the "Counselor Preparation" manual the following areas of training are listed and each one briefly described:

  I. Areas of Training in the Common Core.
    A. Philosophy and Principles.
    B. Growth and Development of the Individual.
    C. The Study of the Individual.
    D. Collecting, Evaluating, and Using Occupational, Educational, and Related Information.
    E. Administration and Community Relationships.
    F. Techniques Used in Counseling.
    G. Supervised Experience in Counseling.
  II. Additional Areas of Preparation for Those Who Counsel on Educational and Vocational Matters.
    A. Group Methods of Guidance.
    B. Placement.
    C. Follow-up Techniques and Uses.
    D. Methods of Research and Evaluation.

6. *Areas of Preparation in the Report of the State Supervisors of Guidance Services.* The suggestions of the Committee do not disagree in any material way with those of the last committee. The core areas are (1) the Counseling Process, (2) Understanding the Individual, (3) Educational and Occupational Information, (4) Administrative Relationships to the Guidance Program, and (5) Research and Evaluation Procedures for Counselors.

Supplementary training in psychology, economics, and sociology is included. The publications of this committee listed on page 582 outline in greater detail the desirable objectives and content of each area.

7. *Supervised Employment Experience.* For the usual school counselor one of the most difficult elements of preparation to secure is actual experience in business or industry. The routine duties of the school, the necessity for further study during the summer vacation, and the difficulty of securing short-term jobs have operated to prevent many from obtaining this very helpful experience.

During the summer of 1943 an interesting experiment was conducted in Michigan. The purpose of this was to provide supervised employment experience on actual jobs. Four universities—the University of Michigan, Wayne University, Northwestern University, and the University of Cincinnati—cooperated with the State Department of Education to provide this opportunity. Arrangements were made with the Chrysler Corporation to provide employment for a limited number of workers under this cooperative plan. These students were regular employees, were admitted in the usual way, and were assigned to various duties determined by the results of the same types of tests, interviews, and other procedures given to other employees; they were paid the same wages as other workers in similar positions. They also enrolled at one of the four universities and attended conferences and participated in class discussions throughout the period of their employment. Seventy students took part in this enterprise, some of them participated in the work experience only, but the majority participated both in the work experience and in the related class discussions. They worked forty-eight hours a week—forty hours on machines and eight hours in conferences. They discussed questions related to types of personnel work, employment procedures, conditions of work, training in service, war and postwar problems, relation of schools to business and industry, etc. For this conference and classwork, they received regular graduate credit at the institution in which they enrolled. This plan enabled them to obtain experience in industry under regular working conditions, at regular pay, and under careful and competent supervision. It was far more valuable for the counselor than observation or work experiences alone.

A similar plan was put into operation in Philadelphia during the summer of 1944. Here the cooperating institutions were the University of Pennsylvania and Temple University. The State Department of Public Instruction took the initiative in this enterprise and actively promoted the general plan. Opportunities for employment were received in twelve cooperating business and industrial establishments. Of these one was a Federal Reserve Bank, three were department stores, and eight were manufacturing industrial concerns. Careful supervision was provided, as well as conferences and regular class instruction. Thus a variety of different types of employment was available under regular working conditions at regular pay. Graduate credit was given in the institution in which the student was enrolled.

If such plans as this should prove successful, it would open the way for a type of experience that will be of great value to all counselors. Similar summer supervised experience in the activities of social-service agencies would round out the preparation of counselors and enable them to understand more clearly the conditions into which their pupils go. Such work and service experience would also be of great value to all teachers.

8. *Present Facilities for Preparation.* Recent surveys of the U.S. Office of Education show that the facilities provided by colleges and universities for counselor preparation are far below the demand for trained counselors. During the year 1949, 930 colleges and universities reported that they had one or more courses in the general field of counselor preparation. Of these 148 offered only one course; and 728, or 80 per cent, offered fewer than five courses.

In the summer of 1949 there were 158 institutions that reported courses in the field of counselor training, and seventy-six reported workshops, clinics, or conferences. Work leading to a master's degree in guidance and personnel work was offered by eighty-three institutions, and work leading to a doctor's degree by forty-eight.

This shows a great increase in facilities as compared with 1947, but the picture is far less encouraging than it appears. When the courses listed by the institutions are examined, it is difficult to understand how many of them could be considered to be helpful in counselor training. There seems to be a fairly definite trend toward guidance workshops, clinics, institutes,

laboratories, cooperative programs, and supervised experience in counselor techniques.

V. Certification of the School Counselor

1. *Present Status of Certification.* The nationwide study by Bailey showed the following situation in 1939.

Analysis of the present and contemplated requirements of state departments of education relative to the certification of personnel workers revealed that there is a general, but as yet not clearly defined, movement toward the requirement of a special certificate for the rendering of personnel service. Four types of certificates are now issued covering such functionaries: (1) a mandatory special counseling certificate, required in five states—Connecticut, Delaware, New York, Pennsylvania (for teachers of guidance), and Wyoming (elementary-school counselors), (2) a special counseling certificate provided, but not required, in two states—California and Pennsylvania (for guidance counselors), (3) a teaching certificate, with guidance as a major or minor subject, required in five States—Georgia, Kentucky, New Jersey, Ohio, and West Virginia, and (4) a teaching certificate only (blanket or special subject) required in thirty-eight states.[10]

Since 1939 the movement for state certification has been very slow. This has been due in part to the difficulty in securing general agreement on what the requirements should be, but largely because of the lack of well-trained counselors who could qualify even under low standards. The facilities in colleges and universities for the adequate training of counselors have also been very meager and this has been a factor in the situation. There has, however, been some progress. In 1950 there were about twenty states that had some form of certificate for school counselors. These were, for the most part, for pupil personnel work and guidance in public secondary schools. A few were mandatory; most were merely permissive. But even the permissive requirements helped, for they at least set up a pattern, and many large cities made this certificate mandatory for counselors in their schools. Many other states are now in the process of formulating certification requirements and these will be approved within a few years.

[10] Bailey, *op. cit.*

2. *New York Certificate for Guidance Service.* New York State has been a pioneer in the formulation of requirements for counselors. It was the first to make such requirements mandatory for full-time counselors in the public schools. The 1950 statement of these requirements sets up such high standards and is so clear and definite that it will be given here in detail. As compared with previous formulations, many important changes have been made both in the wording and in the requirements themselves. The wording of many statements is very similar to that in the committee reports described earlier in this chapter. Like its predecessors, this formulation will no doubt have a profound influence upon the requirements set up by other states.[11]

POLICIES, RULES, AND REGULATIONS EFFECTIVE
SEPTEMBER 1, 1951

CERTIFICATES VALID FOR GUIDANCE SERVICE

A. GENERAL STATEMENT

1. *Definition.* "Guidance service" means the duties hereinafter described which are performed by a member of the professional staff of a public-school system. The staff member may carry such a title as "guidance director," "guidance coordinator," "counselor," "dean," "adviser," "teacher-adviser," "teacher-counselor."

2. *Certificate Required.* A teacher or other staff member who devotes more than five classroom periods a week to duties hereinafter described shall hold a certificate valid for guidance service. A teacher or other staff member may be assigned to guidance service under the direct supervision of a duly qualified counselor in the respective school, provided the guidance duties of such assigned teacher or staff member do not exceed ten classroom periods a week.

3. *Duties.* Subject to the direction of the superintendent of schools, to confer with pupils on extracurricular, curricular, and personal problems, school policies, and related problems; to confer with parents, teachers, specialists, and community agencies on educational, health, social, and vocational problems of pupils; to give instruction in school orientation, curriculums and courses of study, further education, occupational information, and related topics; to maintain current and reliable information on higher education, special training, and occupational opportunities; to assist pupils with employment problems; to prepare, maintain, or supervise the maintenance of

[11] THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, "Certificates for Administrative and Supervisory Service," June, 1950.

pupils' cumulative records; to advise the superintendent, principals, and other staff members in regard to all matters relating to educational and vocational guidance services; and to do related work as required.

B. CERTIFICATES VALID FOR GUIDANCE SERVICE

1. Provisional Certificate

a. Preparation. The candidate shall have completed an approved four-year curriculum leading to a baccalaureate degree (or approved equivalent preparation) and in addition 30 semester hours in approved graduate courses. The total program of undergraduate and graduate preparation shall include 16 semester hours in courses approved as preparation for guidance.

The following schedule will be used to appraise the 16 semester-hour program:

Fields	Semester-hour Range
1. Understanding the individual (dynamics of behavior; needs and characteristics of the individual)	2–4
2. Principles and practice of guidance	2–4
3. Techniques of counseling	2–4
4. Measurements and appraisal for the use of counselors (including statistics)	2–6
5. Survey, organization, and use of educational and occupational information	2–4

Substitution. Five years of approved and appropriate journeyman experience, the one-year industrial teacher-training program, and 30 semester hours of approved and appropriate study completed subsequent to the one-year industrial teacher-training program may be offered in lieu of the courses approved as preparation for guidance.

b. Experience. The candidate shall have completed three years of approved and appropriate experience. Approved and appropriate experience may be in teaching in approved schools, appropriate industrial or commercial pursuits, guidance service under a qualified counselor, professional work in industry or public employment service, or a satisfactory combination of the above. Experience other than teaching shall be of a type that will give the candidate an understanding and appreciation of the problems that pupils face on leaving school. As used in this section, "year of teaching" means a minimum of 160 days of full-time teaching or supervision and the whole must have been completed within a period of not more than five consecu-

tive years. "Year of experience other than teaching" means a minimum of 1200 clock hours of appropriate experience and the whole must have been completed within a period of not more than five consecutive years, subsequent to high school graduation and not more than ten years prior to the date of issuance of a provisional certificate.

c. Teacher's Certificate. The candidate shall hold either a certificate or a statement of eligibility for a certificate valid for teaching in the public schools of New York State.

d. Time Validity. The provisional certificate shall be valid for five years from date of issuance.

e. Eligibility for Permanent Certificate. The holder of a provisional certificate shall be eligible for the permanent certificate hereinafter described provided he has completed, prior to the termination date of said provisional certificate, 14 semester hours in courses approved as preparation for guidance in addition to the requirements of paragraph "*a*" of this subdivision.

2. Permanent Certificate

a. Preparation. The candidate shall have completed an approved four-year curriculum leading to a baccalaureate degree (or approved equivalent preparation) and in addition 30 semester hours in approved graduate courses. The total program of undergraduate and graduate preparation shall include 30 semester hours in courses approved as preparation for guidance.

The following schedule will be used to appraise the 14 semester-hour program:

Fields	Semester-hour Range
1. Either one or both of the following:	
a. Supervised field work and practice in guidance in public schools	4–6
or	
b. Courses as follows:	
Advanced course in practice of counseling	2–4
Advanced course in measurement and appraisal for counselors	2–4
2. Organization and conduct of the guidance program	2–4
3. Advanced course in educational and occupational information	2–4

Candidates who have completed the minimum requirements in each of the fields for the permanent certificate may offer one or more

courses from the list of optional courses enumerated below to satisfy the 14 semester-hour requirement:

Optional Courses	Semester-hour Range
1. Group dynamics	2–4
2. The family	2–4
3. Social case work problems	2–4
4. Labor problems	2–4
5. Placement	2–4
6. Personality development and measurement	2–4

Substitution. Five years of approved and appropriate journeyman experience, the one-year industrial teacher-training program and 30 semester hours in approved courses completed subsequent to the one-year industrial teacher-training program may be offered in lieu of the preparation requirements in subdivision "*a*" of this section but not in diminution of the specific courses approved as preparation for guidance.

b. Experience. The candidate shall have completed five years of approved and appropriate experience, one of which shall have been in teaching in an approved school and one in appropriate occupations other than teaching, and two in guidance service in public schools in New York State.

c. Teacher's Certificate. The candidate shall hold either a certificate or a statement of eligibility for a certificate valid for teaching in the public schools of New York State.

d. In-service Study and Training Requirement. The holder of a permanent certificate shall during each successive ten-year period from the date of issuance complete six hours in approved courses or the equivalent approved and appropriate professional activity such as membership in study groups for professional and cultural improvement, travel, authorship, teaching approved courses offered by a recognized institution of higher or professional education, occupational experience other than teaching, leadership in extraschool activities, leadership in professional associations, and leadership in appropriate community activities.

Courses, studies, and activities offered by a counselor toward satisfaction of the in-service study and training requirement shall be submitted to the State Educational Department for prior approval.

e. Time Validity. The permanent certificate shall be valid continuously except when the holder thereof has not been regularly employed in teaching, supervisory, or administrative positions in the public schools of New York State within a five-year period and has

not satisfied the in-service study and training requirement prescribed in paragraph "*d*" of this subdivision, in which case the validity of the certificate held by such a person shall lapse.

This formulation of certification requirements is to be commended for its detailed statements and explanations of requirements, its flexibility, and its implied emphasis upon competencies rather than upon courses or semester hours accumulated.

3. *Suggestions of the Committee of the N.V.G.A.* (1941). State certification should probably be permissive rather than mandatory in most states and should be of three kinds: the temporary, the provisional, and the permanent.

a. The Temporary Certificate. For part-time counselors in small schools only.
(1) First certificate—minimum requirements.
  (*a*) Two years of successful teaching experience.
  (*b*) Three months of experience in some type of work other than teaching.[12]
  (*c*) A half year of full-time graduate work (12–15 semester hours).
  (*d*) A statement from an institution approved by the state for the training of counselors recommending the person for this certificate.
  (*e*) The certificate should be good for two years.
(2) Renewal. The certificate should be renewable for another period of two years on evidence of at least one year's experience as a school counselor (half-time or full-time); one course (three semester credits) in graduate work in courses related to guidance, and the equivalent of two months' experience in some work other than teaching.

b. The Provisional Certificate. For all full-time counselors.
(1) First certificate—minimum requirements.
  (*a*) Two years of successful teaching experience.
  (*b*) The equivalent of one-half year of experience in some work other than teaching (see footnote).
  (*c*) The successful completion of the equivalent of one year of full-time graduate work (24–30 semester credits), taken in an institution approved by the state for the training of counselors. At least 18–22 semester hours

---

[12] This experience may be in business, industry, summer camp, community survey, social case work, work with juvenile delinquents, or personnel work. To be effective this should be supervised.

of this should have been taken subsequent to two years' teaching experience.

    (d) A statement from an institution approved by the state for the training of counselors recommending the person for the certificate.

    (e) This certificate should be good for four years.

  (2) Renewal. The certificate should be renewable for another period of four years on presentation of the following evidence:

    (a) Two years of full-time successful experience as school counselor.

    (b) The equivalent of one-half year of full-time work (12 semester credits) in graduate courses in areas listed.

    (c) One year's experience in some work other than teaching.

  c. The Permanent Certificate. The minimum requirements for the permanent certificate are

  (1) Two years of successful experience in teaching.

  (2) Three years of successful experience as a full-time counselor.

  (3) One year of experience in work other than teaching.

  (4) The successful completion of one and one-half years of full-time graduate work (36–45 semester credits in areas of courses indicated below), taken in an institution approved by the state for the training of school counselors. Over half of these (20–24 semester credits) should have been taken subsequent to two years of teaching experience.

  (5) A statement from an institution approved by the state for the training of school counselors recommending the person for this certificate.

  d. General Considerations for Certification. Although these requirements have been set up in terms of groups of courses, internships, and other experiences, the point already stressed should continually be kept in mind. The competence of the counselor is the only thing of real importance. Courses, types of courses, semester hours, general requirements are only the means by which the competence may be attained and measured. The purpose of certification is to assure, as far as possible, the competence of those who seek to become counselors.

  It is recommended that considerable latitude be given among the various areas of courses in order to provide for the variation in the organization of courses in different institutions and for placing responsibility upon accredited training institutions as recommended in the next paragraph.

  Since it is very difficult for a certifying agency to determine the real competency of the candidate, responsibility should be placed as

far as possible upon institutions preparing counselors, to certify that any given individual has attained the competencies and abilities described in the requirements rather than that he has merely acquired the required number of semester credits in specified fields. There are few institutions that can, at present, provide the facilities necessary for adequate preparation of school counselors; it is therefore recommended that state departments of education accredit for such preparation only those institutions that, after careful inspection, are found to have adequate facilities and to have organized a satisfactory grouping of courses and other experiences. The state certifying agency would then issue certificates to candidates who have an official statement from one of the approved institutions that they have attained the competencies listed in the certification requirements. This statement should be accompanied by an official transcript of the candidate's record and a statement describing the means that have been taken to determine the attainment of the competencies. Institutions should be allowed great freedom both in the organization of courses calculated to develop the competencies and in the means taken to determine their attainment.

Provisions may well be made in the requirements for the exceptional person who has fully demonstrated his competence for counseling service but who may not technically have fulfilled the specific requirements in courses taken, degrees obtained, or specific experience described in the certification requirements. The individual should, however, be required to furnish such clear and definite evidence of competency as a counselor as may reasonably be accepted by the certifying agency.

4. *Comparative Summary.* The resemblances and differences between the elements in the preparation and certification of counselors as given in various studies and reports may be seen in Table XLIII. Although the study by Cox did not directly suggest certification requirements, it has been included in the table because the results have great significance in setting up plans for preparation and for certification. The general requirements for the New York State certificate for counselors are given for comparison.

The dangers and difficulties of such a comparison are the same as those indicated for Table XL. Keeping in mind these dangers and limitations in the interpretation of the data, certain statements may be made regarding the five studies reported.

1. Only two items are mentioned in all five studies: (1) psychology and (2) principles of guidance.

TABLE XLIII. SUGGESTED REQUIREMENTS IN THE PREPARATION AND
CERTIFICATION OF COUNSELORS

(The number under each name indicates the source in the references at the end
of this chapter)

Elements in preparation and certification	Bailey (1)	Cox (2)	Jones (7)	Rosecrance (12)	Sturtevant (14)	Number in agreement	New York certificate
Studies							
1. Bachelor's degree...........	x	x	x	..	..	3	x
2. Master's degree............	..	x	x	..	..	2	
Professional courses							
3. Psychology......	x	x	x	x	x	5	x
4. Principles of education......	x	..	x	x	..	3	x
5. Tests and measurements...	x	x	x	x	..	4	x
6. Extracurricular activities. ..	.	x	..	..	..	1	
7. Group leadership...........	..	x	x	..	x	3	
8. Research.............	..	..	..	..	x	1	
9. Biology................	..	x	x	x	x	4	
10. Medical aspects of physiopsychological factors.... ...	..	x	..	..	..	1	
11. Economics and sociology...	x	x	x	..	x	4	x
12. Community relations.	x	x	x	..	..	3	x
13. Labor problems..........	..	x	x	..	..	2	x
14. Social case work.........	..	x	x	..	..	2	
15. Psychiatry...............	..	x	x	..	..	2	
16. Mental hygiene.......... .	x	x	x	..	..	3	x
17. Principles of guidance..... .	x	x	x	x	x	5	x
18. Counseling techniques.....	..	x	x	..	x	3	x
19. Vocational guidance..... .	x	x	x	..	x	4	x
20. Occupational research. . .	..	..	..	x	..	1	
21. Religion and morals.... ...	..	..	..	..	x	1	
22. Philosophy.......... .. .	x	..	..	x	..	2	
Experience							
23. Teaching.	x	x	x	x	..	4	x
24. Business and industry.. ...	..	x	x	x	..	3	x
25. Experience in counseling	..	x	x	..	..	2	x
26. Social work	..	x	x	x	..	3	x
27. Experience in meeting many people	x	x	x	..	..	3	
28. Working way through college	x	..	..	..	..	1	
29. Out-of-school youth activities	x	x	x	x	..	4	x
30. Travel....................	..	..	..	..	x	1	
31. Broad background..........	..	x	x	..	..	2	

2. Six are mentioned in four studies: (1) tests and measurements, (2) biology, (3) economics and sociology, (4) vocational guidance, (5) teaching experience, and (6) out-of-school youth activities.

3. Nine are mentioned in three studies: (1) bachelor's degree, (2) principles of education, (3) group leadership, (4) community relations, (5) mental hygiene, (6) counseling techniques, (7) experience in business and industry, (8) social work experience, (9) experience in meeting many people.

4. Six have the support of only two studies.

5. Eight are mentioned in only one study; three of these are in the study by Cox.

It is interesting to note that fourteen out of the seventeen mentioned in three or more studies are included, either required or accepted, in the New York State certificate for counselors.

If we assume that the items mentioned in at least three of the five studies represent very important elements in the preparation and certification of counselors we would include the following: (1) bachelor's degree, (2) psychology, (3) principles of education, (4) tests and measurements, (5) training in group leadership, (6) biology, (7) economics and sociology, (8) community relations, (9) mental hygiene, (10) principles of guidance, (11) counseling techniques, (12) vocational guidance, (13) teaching experience, (14) experience in business and industry, (15) social work experience, (16) experience in meeting many people, and (17) out-of-school youth activities. Although the master's degree is not included in this list, some work beyond the bachelor's degree should be added. Returns not possible to include in the table would indicate the desirability of in-service training as a part of the required program.

It would not, however, be safe to conclude that all of these are essential or that they include all the essential items. We cannot set up any satisfactory group of requirements by any such mechanical process. As desirable characteristics are only valuable insofar as they produce a competent counselor; so it is the total pattern of characteristics that is important, not separate, unrelated characteristics.

Zeran and Jones sum up the general situation in 1949 as follows: [13]

---

[13] ZERAN, FRANKLIN R., and GALEN JONES, The National Picture of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services, *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Bulletin, 32:52-73, October, 1948.

. . . Most states require a period of three years of successful teaching experience, an accumulated period of about 50 weeks in work experiences other than in teaching or counseling, and a year of work in the field of guidance at the graduate level. Certain basic areas such as the analysis of the individual, informational services, counseling techniques, follow-up techniques, and placement procedures form the core around which the training is to be done. Usually consideration is given to a specific number of courses or credits of required work, and the remainder is based upon the needs of the individual trainee. Provisional certificates are issued in some cases with the final certificate given upon the successful completion of three years of counseling work. However, certification standards will be of little or no value unless those offering counselor training are themselves thoroughly qualified.

VI. Summary

Although the foregoing descriptions of characteristics of the successful school counselor, the preparation desirable, and the types of certificates given can be regarded as only tentative, they show a very desirable tendency in the direction of a more careful consideration of the work of the counselor and his place in the general program of guidance. They also indicate a clearly defined demand for more adequate preparation for this service. We are not ready for a crystallization of the duties of the school counselor nor for the final formulation of the exact types of preparation and certification that are desirable. The varied and changing nature of the work of the school counselor makes it necessary to keep the program of preparation and certification rather flexible. The pictures and patterns of successful counselors as revealed by the Cox study still further emphasize the importance of flexibility in programs for the preparation of counselors and in certification requirements. The only thing of real importance is the development and selection of the successful counselor—not the courses taken or the specific requirements fulfilled. We must find some way by which the final product may be effectively appraised instead of depending, as now, upon more or less mechanical means and methods by which we think the successful counselor may be produced. The best way yet proposed would seem to be placing upon the institutions in charge of the preparation of these counselors the responsibility of appraising the end product of the preparation—the successful

counselor. One of the most important steps in this process is the selection of those who are admitted to the counselor-training course. Much has been written on the question of whether the successful counselor is born or made. This may be an interesting question for speculation, but it is hardly a practical one. We feel sure that if the individual does not have the important personal characteristics at the time when he begins his specialized counselor training, or give promise of developing them more fully later, he is not a good prospect and should not be selected.

While realizing the necessity for setting up adequate standards of preparation and certification, we must provide for sufficient flexibility to enable us (1) to select for counseling service those who have demonstrated that they are successful counselors even though they may not have completely fulfilled the minutiae of the requirements, (2) to eliminate those who are incompetent even though they may have fulfilled all the stated requirements. This will be a difficult task, but recent developments give real promise of its successful accomplishment.

REFERENCES

1. BAILEY, RICHARD J.: "The Preparation, Certification, and Selection of Personnel Workers for the Secondary Schools of the United States," a doctoral dissertation at New York University. A comprehensive questionnaire study of the counselor in the secondary school. The entire thesis has not yet been published. The most extensive parts have been published as an abstract of the thesis and in the following articles:

 a. Preparing, Certifying and Selecting Public School Counselors, *Educational Administration and Supervision,* 26:415–423, September, 1940.

 b. State Certification of School Counselors, *Occupations,* 19:94–98, November, 1940.

2. COX, RACHEL DUNAWAY: "Counselors and Their Work," Archives Press, Harrisburg, Pa., 1945. A study of 100 carefully selected counselors, using case-study techniques largely. This gives an intimate and detailed picture of the varied activities of the school counselor, his training, experience, general background, and his own appraisal of his points of strength and weakness and preparation for the job.

3. DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C., and LEONARD M. MILLER: "Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers," rev. ed., International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa. 1949. Chapter I gives an over-all view of characteristics and training of counselors.

4. FITCH, JOHN A.: "Vocational Guidance in Action," Columbia University Press, New York. Gives the results of a study of the opinions of four trained workers in the field and heads of vocational guidance depart-

ments in certain cities; also gives the certification requirements for counselors in several states and cities.

5. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P.: The Basic Guidance Course; Training for Job Performance, *School and Society*, 70:19–21, July, 1949. An outline of the basic course in guidance for counselors and teachers.

6. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P., editor: The following reports of the Committee on Counselor Preparation of the Conferences of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainees, U.S. Office of Education, 1949.

   a. Duties, Standards and Qualifications for Counselors, *Miscellaneous* 3314–1, February, 1949.

   b. Counselor Competencies in Occupational Information, *Miscellaneous* 3314–3, March, 1949.

   c. Counselor Competencies in Analysis of the Individual, *Miscellaneous* 3314–4, July, 1949.

   d. Counselor Competencies in Counseling Techniques, *Miscellaneous* 3314–5, July, 1949.

   e. Administrative Relationships of the Guidance Program, *Miscellaneous* 3314–8, July 1949.

   f. Guidance Workers Preparation, *Miscellaneous* 3333, July, 1949.

7. JONES, ARTHUR J., Chairman: The Preparation and Certification of the School Counselor, a reprint of two articles published in *Occupations*, 19:533–538, April, 1941, and 19:589–599, May, 1941.

8. MILLER, LEONARD M., Chairman: "Counselor Preparation," National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington, D.C., 1949.

9. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF DEANS OF WOMEN, COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL DEAN. Most of the material of this committee is unpublished; it is contained in mimeographed reports.

10. PATERSON, DONALD G., GWENDOLEN G. SCHNEIDLER, and E. G. WILLIAMSON: "Student Guidance Techniques," McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938. This contains a list of qualifications of counselors adapted from specifications proposed by members of the Occupational Research Program, U.S. Employment Service, and by the Division of Rehabilitation, Minnesota State Department of Education.

11. PIERCE, ANNA ELOISE: "Deans and Advisers of Women and Girls," Professional and Technical Press, New York, 1928. This gives a long list of personal characteristics and qualifications of high-school deans and recommendations for preparation and certification.

12. ROSECRANCE, FRANCIS C.: Present Day Challenges to Guidance in Secondary Education, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin* 24:14–19, December, 1940. The results of an extensive study by 634 guidance workers of seventy cities in which certain guidance courses were recommended.

13. STRANG, RUTH: "Pupil Personnel and Guidance," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. Chapter X has a helpful discussion of the characteristics and qualifications of counselors and gives suggestions regarding their preparation and certification.

14. STURTEVANT, SARAH M., RUTH STRANG, and MARGARET McKIM: "Trends in Student Personnel Work," Teachers College, Columbia Univer-

sity, New York, 1940. A study of the preparation of 100 selected deans of girls and of the opinions of these deans regarding the courses and experiences which they considered of great value, of some value, and of little or no value.

15. U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE: "The Counselor's Manual," Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1944. A manual prepared for counselors in the U.S. Employment Service.

16. ZERAN, FRANKLIN R., and GALEN JONES: The National Picture of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Services, *National Association of Secondary-school Principals, Bulletin* 32:52–73, October, 1948.

PRESENT STATUS AND EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE
AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

I. EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL
WORK

1. *Relationship between Guidance and Education.* We have
already seen in Chaps. I and III that guidance is inherent in
the process of education. Whenever education as a conscious
process began in the life of the human race, then guidance began.
Whenever and wherever three conditions existed, there was
guidance. These conditions are (1) the need for choosing be-
tween courses of action, (2) the inability of the individual to
choose wisely without help, (3) the need for help in adjust-
ment, (4) the possibility of help being given. Guidance has
always been given, but the recognition of its fundamental im-
portance in the teaching process and in the learning process is
comparatively recent. This recognition has been hastened, if
not actually brought about, by the increasing realization of the
fact of individual differences in abilities, interests, and capacities,
and by the waste in human life and energy as well as in the
processes of production resulting from the wrong choice of vo-
cation.

2. *Beginnings of the Guidance Movement.* The organized
guidance movement began in this country with an attempt to
give assistance in selecting a vocation and in securing a job. It
is generally recognized that the first step in this development
was the organization of the Boston Vocation Bureau, in 1908.
This bureau was organized on plans developed by Frank Parsons,
who, with Meyer Bloomfield, is recognized as the founder of the
guidance movement. In 1905, Professor Parsons became director
of the Breadwinners Institute, which was a branch of the Civic
Service House. Meyer Bloomfield was director of the Civic
Service House. Thus, the two men worked in close association

with one another. In his work as director, Professor Parsons gave direct vocational assistance to many men and women. He had thus laid the basis for the Vocation Bureau in his work in connection with the Breadwinners Institute. In the first report of the Vocation Bureau, Professor Parsons used the term "vocational guidance" with almost the same significance as that now accepted. "The Vocational Bureau is intended to aid young people in choosing an occupation, preparing themselves for it, finding an opening in it, and building a career of efficiency and success." [1] It is also interesting to note his modern point of view regarding principles of counseling.

1. It is better to choose a vocation than merely to hunt for a job.
2. No one should choose a vocation without careful self-analysis, thorough, honest, and under guidance.
3. The youth should have a large survey of the field of vocations, and not simply drop into the convenient or accidental position.
4. Expert advice, or the advice of men who have made a careful study of men and vocations and of the conditions of success, must be better and safer for a young man than the absence of it.
5. The putting down on paper of a self-analysis is of supreme importance. [2]

This work resulted in the appointment of the Committee on Vocational Advice by the Boston School Committee, in 1909. In 1910, this committee reported that a vocational counselor had been appointed in every elementary and high school in Boston. This resulted in the founding of the Boston Placement Bureau, in 1912. This was brought about by the cooperation of the Children's Welfare League and the Women's Municipal League. In 1915, the Boston School Committee established the Department of Vocational Guidance under the direction of Miss Susan J. Ginn. During the same period, from 1910 to 1915, other cities were active in the organization of vocational guidance work. Among these, possibly the most important were Grand Rapids, Mich. (under the leadership of Jesse B. Davis), Hartford, Conn., New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and Chicago. Many other cities conducted investigations into the working conditions of

---

[1] Quoted from *Arena*, July, 1908, by John M. Brewer in "History of Vocational Guidance," p. 61, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 60.

young people and contributed very materially to the development of the movement.

Very influential in this development were the various conferences on vocational guidance. The Boston Conference held under the joint auspices of the Vocation Bureau and the Chamber of Commerce, in 1910, was probably the first one of the kind to be held. Another conference of a similar nature was held in New York, in 1912; and, in 1913, the National Vocational Guidance Association was founded at a meeting in Grand Rapids, Mich.

II. NATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL ORGANIZATIONS

1. *The National Vocational Guidance Association.* This was the first organization entirely devoted to guidance established in this country. It was founded in 1913 at the third annual meeting of the National Conference on Vocational Guidance at Grand Rapids, Mich. As finally organized it provided for an over-all national organization with branch associations throughout the country. For many years the meetings of the Association were small and attracted little attention. On Apr. 1, 1934, there were thirty-five branch associations and the total paid membership was 1,323. There were 880 branch members and 443 "members at large," that is, members of the Association, but not members of any local branch. In March, 1950, there were 4,603 active members; of these 792 were professional members. In addition to the members of the Association there were several thousand who were members of the local or branch associations but not of the National Association. The membership of the Association consists of guidance and personnel workers in all levels of educational institutions and in business and industry. Many others interested in the work of the Association but not actively engaged in guidance and personnel work are also members. The Association is becoming international in scope, having branch associations in Canada and other countries.

Occupations, the vocational guidance journal begun in 1915 as *The Vocational Guidance Magazine,* a modest four-page bulletin, had ninety-six pages in February, 1934, and was a real magazine. On Feb. 1, 1934, it had a paid circulation of 2,110, as compared with 603 in August, 1923. The largest number of total pages, 1,110, for any one year was in 1935–1936, in which two

double numbers were issued. This was during the regime of the National Occupational Conference. On Mar. 1, 1950, the total distribution of copies was about 7,850, of which nearly a hundred were sent to nonsubscribers in foreign countries. Through its divisions and committees it has been a powerful influence in the fields of occupational research; development of guidance and personnel work in schools, colleges, business and industry, and government work; in the preparation and certification of counselors; and in establishing standards of professional work in the field.

The development of the National Vocational Guidance Association, the critical stages through which it has passed, and the influence of various organizations upon it are vividly described by Brewer in his "History of Vocational Guidance." They need not be repeated here. From the position of an unnoticed pioneer, the Association now finds itself only one of many associations and societies actively interested in the problems of guidance. Many of these organizations do not use the term "guidance" in their names and it is not always used in their discussions, but they are concerned with the same problems; they are parts of the same movement, whether the terms used are "advising," "pupil personnel," "pupil adjustment," "clinical method," "guidance clinic," "the problems of youth," or "guidance."

2. *Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth.* The name of this organization was changed from "Southern Women's Educational Alliance" to its present form in 1937. It is a national professional organization for personnel workers serving young people through the small school, college, or other rural community agency; but other persons interested in bringing about adequate guidance for rural children and youth are also welcomed to membership. This organization directs an annual series of forums of youth-serving agencies, both voluntary and governmental, and sponsors an annual institute in which consultants from Federal and voluntary national agencies work on selected rural or rural-industrial problems. As a technical consultant agency, invited by local authorities, it assists in guidance workshops; and conducts experimental programs and demonstrations in particular communities. Descriptions of techniques used in field service,

appraisal of results, and findings of institutes and workshops are published and distributed to membership.

3. *Altrusa International, Inc.* This is an international service club, established in 1907, of women who hold executive positions in diversified business and professional pursuits. The membership in 1950 was approximately 8,500 in the United States, Puerto Rico, Mexico, England, Guatemala, Bermuda, and Canada. Membership is by invitation only and all activities are directed and coordinated by Altrusa Headquarters, 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 3, Ill. The *International Altrusan* is published monthly.

Typical club projects include community surveys, vocational guidance and adjustment, vocational information, training facilities, job tryouts, scholarships, study groups of inter-American affairs, and cooperation with other community groups.

4. *American College Personnel Association.* This is a national organization of persons who are engaged in all phases of personnel work at the college level, and in addition, of persons in personnel work in business and industry approved by the Executive Council. It was established in 1923. Its membership in 1950 was 700. Publications: *Educational and Psychological Measurement* (quarterly journal); *Personnel-o-gram* (newsletter between journal issues); also, publications on personnel work of the American Council on Education and similar agencies are furnished to members from time to time.

This association considers itself responsible for the promotion of professional standards and of research, and for the encouragement of cooperation among college, business, and industrial personnel workers.

5. *Eastern College Personnel Officers.* An organization of those engaged in college personnel work in New England, New York, and New Jersey. Associate membership may be enjoyed by personnel representatives from outside agencies who recruit people from colleges in the area. The association meets annually for the discussion of the personnel problems of college men and women. It also gives the representatives from business, industry, and social agencies an opportunity to present the needs and expectations of their respective fields.

6. *National Association of Deans of Women.* A national professional organization of deans, counselors, and advisers en-

gaged in student personnel work, known also as the Department of Deans of Women of the National Educational Association of the United States. It was established in 1916. Membership in 1950 was approximately 1,400. This includes counselors and deans in secondary schools as well as colleges. Its headquarters serve as a clearinghouse for professional information and news of the activities of regional and local groups. Subject bibliographies, reports of current personnel procedures, and studies of all phases of student guidance programs are made available to groups having allied interests. It has been influential in developing standards of services and requirements for certification.

7. *The National Association of Guidance Supervisors.* A professional organization of state supervisors of guidance services devoted to the promotion of guidance programs in local schools. A major purpose of the Association is to promote the exchange of information among state supervisors concerning guidance tools, techniques, practices, and trends as observed by the supervisors in their respective states. It was established in 1945. This organization has been active in developing standards of work for counselors in public schools and has developed outlines for the preparation of counselors.

8. *National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.* A group of autonomous clubs—at least 75 per cent of the members of which are women actively engaged in business or professional work—established in 1919. In the fields of guidance and personnel this federation of employers and employees strives to establish sound personnel practices, works to have educational counseling and placement facilities manned by trained personnel, encourages adequate preparation for business and professional work, and publishes and sponsors vocational material.

9. *Personnel Section, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.* A student personnel organization with nationwide affiliates encompassing the chief personnel officers on the campuses of the 250 or more colleges which make up the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The A.A.C.T.E. was begun in 1931. The purpose of the section is to promote better personnel administration on the campuses of the teacher education institutions. To further this purpose, timely bulletins are printed or mimeographed, and circulated

among the membership. In cooperation with the committee on studies and standards of the A.A.C.T.E., a complete survey of student personnel procedures in teacher colleges has been made. A monograph reports these procedures in teachers colleges. The section has also participated in the writing of the standard on personnel procedure used for accreditation of colleges in the A.A.C.T.E.

10. *The Western Personnel Institute.* A nonprofit cooperative research institute maintained by and for colleges and universities in the eleven Western states. It serves as a regional clearinghouse in the field of student personnel work. It studies trends in education, government, business, and the professions; evaluates occupational information; and aids in the development of improved student personnel programs.

11. *Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations.* This council was established in 1934 as a coordinating agency. It is composed of the ten agencies and organizations mentioned above, all of which are actively interested, directly or indirectly, in the guidance and personnel fields. It is governed by a Board of Representatives composed of members from each of the constituent organizations. Its purpose is to bring together those organizations concerned with guidance and personnel work of various kinds and through the combined activity of their members to promote the idea of guidance and personnel work in its widest sense and to improve the quality of its practices. It was brought into being because of the recognition that the objectives of guidance and personnel in all fields were similar, if not identical, and because many members of the National Vocational Guidance Association were also members of other organizations in the Council. Since its organization the Council has greatly increased the feeling of unity among its members and has prevented much unnecessary overlapping in programs and in activities. It seems certain that in the near future an even greater unity will be developed so that the activities of the members of the constituent groups will be coordinated and that the influence of the entire organization may be exerted as a unit for the accomplishment of common purposes.

12. *Other Organizations.* There are also many other organizations that are interested in guidance and personnel work, either as a whole or through committees or divisions. Most of

these have been mentioned in previous discussions. Among the most important are the following: (1) B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, whose purpose is to conduct a program of group vocational guidance for Jewish youth; (2) Jewish Occupational Council, Inc., which combines various Jewish agencies as participants working for the welfare of Jewish people; (3) the National Educational Association, which is vitally interested in guidance and personnel work. Among the committees and divisions that have contributed most to guidance and personnel work are: the Educational Policies Commission, the American Association of School Administrators, the Department of Adult Education, the Department of Vocational Education, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Department of Rural Education, the Department of Elementary School Principals, and the National Association of Secondary-school Principals. Of these the National Association of Secondary-school Principals has devoted more time and energy to the general field of guidance and personnel work. Finally, the American Council on Education, through its Committee on Measurement and Guidance and its Committee on Student Personnel Work, has made very valuable contributions.

The interest in the general field of guidance and personnel work is so great that it is difficult to find any association or gathering concerned with youth that does not have on the agenda of its meetings or in its work program some reference to guidance and pupil personnel work. To those who have watched its growth from small beginnings it seems hardly possible that the guidance movement is so widespread and that it is so universally accepted.

III. The Federal Government and Guidance and Personnel Work

Guidance and personnel work have now a definite and important place in the Federal government as well as in state governments.

1. *The United States Office of Education.* An expanded program of guidance and pupil personnel services was formulated by former Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker in 1944. This has been developed so that now it provides for specialists in student personnel in the Division of Higher Edu-

cation, in counseling, pupil personnel, and work programs in the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, for specialists in guidance techniques, guidance personnel training, and educational and occupational information in the Division of Vocational Education. Through a broadly conceived guidance and pupil personnel program it promotes staff services in a school to care for all aspects of the guidance needs of the pupil, the school, and the community. Emphasis is laid upon individual counseling and upon the essential provisions in the school program to make this counseling effective in the pupil's attack upon his vocational, educational, personal, placement, and other collateral problems. This involves encouragement of the development of personnel and the organization for pupil personnel services in state departments of education, local school systems, and in individual school units so that they may function in helping youth and adults, in school and out, to make better decisions about ways of making a living and other personal problems.

It serves as a clearing house for occupational information, especially information adapted to school use. It assists local and state authorities to initiate or expand guidance work suited to their needs. It offers cooperation to all public and private agencies interested in guidance procedures.

The service advocates a program of pupil personnel services which supplies information about pupils as individuals, and about the community in which they will work and live, with emphasis on individual counseling and on procedures for research and evaluation. It assumes that such a program will include one or more members of the school faculty chosen for appropriate qualifications and assigned part or full time to individual counseling. Such counselors in the development of a school program of guidance will serve and draw assistance from the entire faculty and utilize all special services the community can offer.

Through correspondence this service assists laymen, school personnel, and professional guidance workers. Correspondents are referred to state and local guidance resources where these are available and are supplied if possible with pertinent material. Inquiries of general professional interest receive special attention.

Field service includes consultation with state and other school

authorities, conference participation, addresses, and assistance in teacher training in pupil personnel at institutions of higher education or under state or local auspices.

State school authorities are assisted in problems related to pupil personnel services through correspondence and field service. This cooperation sometimes results in special studies, research, and publications.

The George-Barden Act, approved Aug. 1, 1946, authorized specific amounts for vocational education in agriculture, in home economics, in trades and industries, and in distributive occupations. It did not provide specifically for vocational guidance but its language did allow for vocational guidance to be included. The essential characteristics of this policy are given in the official "Supplement to Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 1." It will be permissible to use the funds appropriated under the several authorizations of section 3(a) of the George-Barden Act to provide for the following services:

a. The maintenance of a state program of supervision in vocational guidance.

b. The maintenance of a state program of training vocational counselors.

c. The salaries and necessary travel of vocational counselors and the purchase of instructional equipment and supplies for use in counseling.

2. *Other Government Agencies.* Other government agencies have developed effective programs of guidance and personnel work. Among these are the Veterans' Administration, which set up in various parts of the country counseling agencies that have provided excellent services for veterans. As the number of veterans needing this service has diminished many of these centers are continuing their service and expanding to include all types of persons. The Vocational Rehabilitation Service in cooperation with the states has also provided helpful counseling services. The U.S. Employment Service has, through its publications and its state employment office, been of great assistance in the field of guidance and personnel work.

IV. Present Status of Guidance and Pupil Personnel
Work

1. *Study of U.S. Office of Education.*[3] In 1918, the Bureau of
Education sent out a post-card inquiry to 10,400 four-year high
schools in the United States requesting data on "departments or
bureaus designed to assist young persons in securing employ-
ment." Of the 5,628 schools replying, 932 reported vocation
bureaus, employment departments, or similar devices for placing
pupils. In 1945–1946 a similar inquiry brought information from
24,314 junior and senior high schools enrolling 7,140,161 pupils.
These schools reported a total of 8,229 counselors.

2. *Self Study Guide of the North Central Association.* The
North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
through a subcommittee, has developed a "Self Study Guide" to
be used by a school in the study of its guidance program. The
fifteen characteristics selected are shown in Table XLIV. Each
characteristic is arranged in a five-point scale ranging from
"(1) inadequate," at one extreme to "(5) extended or potential
optimum" at the other. This table shows the frequencies in
percentages of each characteristic from the 2,177 schools
reporting.

The table also shows that two-thirds of all the schools re-
ported that they had reached at least No. 3 on the scale, the
minimum status; two-thirds of the schools had reached the
optimum status or were moving toward it; nearly two-thirds
of the schools were either at the top level or were moving
toward it in "Teacher Use of Records" and "Training of Person
in Charge." The least satisfactory characteristic was "Appraisal
of Guidance Services," where 50 per cent were at the minimum
level or just above it.

Care should be taken in drawing conclusions from these data.
This "Self Study Guide" was not intended to be an evaluation
device. It has, however, the nature of a self-evaluation of the
kind described on pages 602–605. Even as a survey of practices
we must consider the report as a report of what each school
thought it had or said it had and the degree to which they thought

[3] Zeran, Franklin R., and Galen Jones, The National Picture of Guid-
ance and Pupil Personnel Services, *National Association of Secondary-school
Principals, Bulletin*, October, 1948.

TABLE XLIV. TOTAL FREQUENCIES OF RATINGS ON EACH OF THE 15 GUIDANCE CHARACTERISTICS FOR 2,177 HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

(Percentages)

Characteristics	Ratings					4 and 5	
	1	2	3	4	5	Per cent	Rank
1. Role of guidance services.......	1	24	38	30	7	37	10
2. Comprehensive records.........	5	26	29	25	15	40	8
3. Teacher use of records.........	1	8	30	24	37	61	1
4. Training of person in charge.....	4	7	29	35	25	60	2
5. Organizing and administering the program....................	5	11	40	34	10	44	5
6. In-service training program.....	8	7	40	32	13	45	4
7. Counseling service.............	3	27	35	26	9	35	11
8. Role of the teacher.............	0.5	6	45.5	33	15	48	3
9. Teachers contribute to curriculum revision..................	4	19	45	25	7	32	12
10. Community resources and the program.....................	12	30	36	17	5	22	14
11. Orientation to new school.......	5	17	37	32	9	41	7
12. Placement service.............	8	12	42	23	15	38	9
13. Program of follow-up studies....	13	19	37	25	6	31	13
14. Appraisal of guidance services...	16	34	31	15	4	19	15
15. Adequate individual counseling both during school hours and post-school periods...........	4	15	33	28	15	43	6

they had attained the standard checked. There was no attempt to check on the accuracy of the results. It is quite possible that some schools reported practices that they did not have either because they did not know what such practices were or because they wished to be included among the schools that were considered to be progressive. Even with these reservations in mind the report is very interesting and encouraging.

3. *The University of Minnesota Study.* In 1947 the College of Education of the University of Minnesota sent out a six-page

questionnaire to 485 nonmetropolitan high schools in the state asking for information about guidance practices; 321 replies were received. The following practices were listed: (1) orientation, (2) educational and vocational counseling, (3) social development, (4) placement and follow-up, (5) health care and counseling, (6) testing and records, (7) home-room and group guidance, (8) administrative. Some of the findings were: Adjustment of new pupils was provided for chiefly in assembly programs and other meetings; test results were commonly used but more attention was given to testing than to the use of tests; this was also true of records. Teachers, as a rule, did educational counseling but this was in addition to their regular teaching load. Placement and follow-up was the weakest area. Nearly half the schools make use of private counseling services. When provision is made in the budget for guidance services it is very inadequate, only a third of those that do provide money for such services appropriate more than $50.

These studies of guidance practice are only samples of surveys made throughout the country. They indicate, beyond a doubt, that guidance and personnel work are no longer considered as unnecessary "frills" or necessary evils, but are fundamental elements in all phases of education.

V. Changes in Emphasis

1. *Original Emphasis.* Even this brief description of the development of guidance has shown that in its beginnings it was distinctly a vocational guidance movement; it was directed mainly toward assisting the individual in making vocational choices and in securing employment. This was, at the time, the greatest apparent need. But guidance has progressed far beyond this point. The very attempt to help young people in vocational choices inevitably revealed other needs that in many cases transcended in importance the vocational needs. Many times the boy was not ready to take a position; he needed further training. Often, the need was a health need, a moral need, or a recreational need. Gradually, but surely, we have come to realize that guidance is not something that concerns only a part of the individual; nor does it deal merely with a part of his life. The need is for "whole-child" guidance. At one time a particular need may be of paramount importance, but even then we must

be careful not to distort the point of view; not to overemphasize a present need, however real and imperative this need may be.

2. *Broader Point of View.* One of the significant *changes in the guidance point of view* is this broadening of the point of view. Vocational guidance is still recognized as a very important part of guidance but it no longer occupies the entire stage. One of the great dangers to the proper development of the movement is that guidance workers will not see that the movement is, and must be, broader than the vocational field. Life is more than making a living; problems are by no means confined to vocations; crises that are not concerned with vocations occur continually in the lives of young people, and any attempt to interpret them in terms of vocations would be fatal.

We cannot conceal the essential nature of life problems by labeling them "vocational." The objection that this point of view makes the problem of guidance too broad and too complex is unconvincing. Guidance *is* broad; it *is* complex; no amount of verbal juggling or restricted nomenclature can conceal the fact. We should face the issue squarely, recognize the complexity of the problem, and guard ourselves against the misunderstanding that will inevitably follow any attempt to restrict guidance merely to vocational problems.

VI. Effect of the Guidance and Pupil Personnel Movement

1. *Complexity of Educational Reforms.* It is difficult to tell definitely what effect the guidance and pupil personnel movement has had upon education. There are very few, if any, educational movements that can with any degree of certainty be said to have had this or that specific influence. Nearly all reforms in educational theory and practice are the results of the general acceptance of certain more or less fundamental principles. They may be explained most often by describing them as but different phases of some principle or truth that underlies all and that has been accepted. This truth finds expression in various ways in different parts of the country; these are but different attempts to interpret the educational *Zeitgeist.*

2. *Presence of Guidance in All Educational Reforms.* Whether we can assign any definite place to guidance as an influence in modern reforms in education or not, we can at least confidently affirm that guidance is clearly associated with practically all mod-

ern movements in education. Recognition of the importance of individual differences in need as a basis for curriculum construction, for methods of teaching, and for organization of school life is undoubtedly one of the outstanding principles fundamental to all modern educational reforms. This is the principle upon which guidance is built. Another expression of this principle is the movement toward individualized instruction. The junior high school developed largely from the same principle. The center and life of the junior high school is guidance. The fundamental purpose of this new institution is expressed in guidance terms—exploration, experimentation, tryout, provisional choice. The junior high school is a place where a definite attempt is made to assist students in making important choices. The entire organization gets its motive and its plan from guidance. Child accounting, tests and measurements, especially the diagnostic testing program, are all based upon guidance. Diagnosis and guidance are inseparable; remedial work is but the result of a guidance program.

3. *Trends in School Guidance Activities.* Very definite changes in the guidance activities in schools have been noted in many studies. The most detailed and inclusive data on such changes are found in a study conducted by Cunliffe of the guidance activities in New Jersey secondary schools.[3a] Surveys of practices were made for the years 1931, 1936, 1940, and 1947. The following general conclusions are warranted from this study. Some of these show trends; others indicate the present situation only; all are significant.

1. More emphasis is placed upon educational guidance than upon vocational guidance.

2. Guidance upon entering school, adjustment to school, is emphasized more than guidance on leaving school.

3. The four-year high school reported more activity and a more complete guidance program than the junior high school. The junior high school reported more activity with regard to the home room and exploratory courses.

4. The four-year high schools rate themselves "superior" particularly in counseling and in vocational guidance.

[3a] CUNLIFFE, REX B.: "The Guidance Program in the Public Secondary Schools in New Jersey," Rutgers University Studies in Education, No. 16, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, N.J., 1950.

5. Since 1931, the four-year high school has shown its greatest development ·in testing, placement of graduates, and in services of full-time counselors and directors of guidance.

6. The junior high school shows little change since 1931, as compared with the four-year high school.

7. The four-year and the junior high schools differ in.the practices that are rated as "superior."

8. Small and large four-year high schools differ in practices and in "superior" ratings. The large high schools seem to have a more complete program.

9. The four-year high schools whose graduates go to work on graduation have more complete programs than those whose graduates go on to school.

10. Low-cost schools have better programs than high-cost schools.

Although it is not always safe to conclude that the trends found in one state are characteristic of those in the country as a whole, scattered reports from schools in many states and general observation indicate that the changes in emphasis noted in New Jersey are probably symptomatic of trends throughout the country. We should not forget, however, that changes such as those indicated are more or less directly related to changes in social, economic, and industrial conditions and cannot be understood except as these larger changes are taken into consideration. The trends in guidance practices cannot be taken necessarily as trends in the development of guidance apart from the background of the larger changes in the life of the people. When changes in social, economic, and industrial conditions take place in the future, guidance practices will, to a large extent, change also and the trends now noted may not continue.

Other significant trends are clearly seen in the data presented on pages 594–596 and in current discussions in meetings of guidance and personnel associations. Among these may be mentioned (1) the increasing number of men counselors; (2) the clearer definition of what the duties and responsibilities of a counselor should be; (3) increased and more adequate facilities for the training of counselors; (4) provision for in-service training of teachers and counselors for guidance services; (5) the state certification of counselors; (6) the increasing recognition that the basic purposes and objectives of all guidance and personnel work are the same; (7) the adoption of a terminology that can be understood by all and accepted by all, and that will adequately

describe the various services that are now included under the terms "guidance and personnel work";[4] (8) increased attention to guidance in the elementary school; and (9) increased interest in nondirective counseling.

VII. EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

A. THE MEANING AND PURPOSE OF EVALUATION

1. *Confusion of Meanings.* One of the first things that confront one in the study of evaluations is the confusion of meanings. The terms "evaluation," "appraisal," "measurements," and "test" are used in all discussions of evaluations and usually as more or less synonymous. This results only in confusion and lack of understanding. Evaluation as applied to education means, in general, the process by which we find how far the objectives of the school program are being realized. According to Wrightstone,[5] "it involves the identification and formulation of a comprehensive range of major objectives . . . their definition in terms of human behavior, and the construction of valid, reliable and practical instruments for appraising the specified phases of pupil behavior . . . it includes the integrating and interpreting of the various indexes of behavior changes into an inclusive portrait of an individual." In evaluation we seek to secure a clinical picture of the total changes in the behavior of the individual or of the agency in terms of the over-all objectives or purposes set up as desirable. It involves the setting up of objectives and the use of all available instruments in determining whether these objectives, as an integrated whole, have been accomplished.

Appraisal, while often used synonymously with evaluation, is more frequently used in a more general sense of finding the value of a method, a device, or an institution for accomplishing the objectives for which it is set up. It presupposes the formulation of objectives; it does not itself formulate them. The instruments of appraisal include tests of all kinds, measurements, rating

---

[4] Terminology is important only as it promotes the services that are essential; at present the different terms used lead to confusion. It seems probable that "Pupil Personnel Work" or "Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work" will be used increasingly to describe the services in the elementary and secondary schools.

[5] WRIGHTSTONE, J. A., in "Encyclopedia of Educational Research," Walter S. Monroe, editor, p. 468, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

scales, questionnaires, judgments, interviews, observations, anecdotal records, stenographic reports, sound recordings, and school records of all kinds.[6]

Tests, properly, are more or less scientific devices for separating one thing from another; they are critical trials. A control experiment that attempts to eliminate all except one factor and to study this with reference to the objective set up is in essence a test. *Tests are very useful instruments of evaluation, but at best they are concerned with only one element and are not evaluations.*

Measurement involves testing but it is more precise than testing; it involves the magnitude or quantity of an ability, trait, or characteristic; *it is expressed in units that are each equal to the other.* The use of measurement in education is quite limited because the units of change in behavior or development are seldom equal. Measurements are also very useful as instruments of evaluation, but they fall far short of evaluation.

Evaluation is concerned with setting up general objectives, stating the outcomes in terms of complex, integrated human behavior and determining the degree to which these objectives have been attained. It uses all possible instruments in arriving at its conclusion, but its final judgment is not merely a sum of the results of all tests, measurements, observations, and scales. It is more than this sum; it is a subjective judgment based upon the results of all these instruments and certain intangibles not readily tested, together with their interrelationships as revealing a general pattern of behavior. By its nature it should always be subjective, but to be reliable it should be based upon every reliable appraisal device that it is possible to use.

2. *Purposes of Evaluation.* Here we cannot do better than to paraphrase the purposes of educational evaluation given by Tyler.[7] These purposes are

   a. To provide a periodic check on the effectiveness of a guidance program and thus indicate the points at which the program may be improved.

---

[6] MAY, MARK A., Evaluation in the Educational Enterprise, pp. 402–410, *University of Pennsylvania Schoolmen's Week,* 1942. This gives an excellent discussion of the distinctions in meaning.

[7] TYLER, RALPH W., The Place of Evaluation in Modern Education, *Elementary School Journal,* 51:19–27, September, 1940.

b. To determine the correctness or incorrectness of the hypotheses on which the guidance program operates. The guidance program of many schools is based upon the hypothesis that a well-trained guidance officer will eliminate pupil maladjustments. Other schools operate on the belief that the distribution of all the guidance services throughout the teaching staff with no specialist will be most effective. Systematic evaluation seems to indicate that neither hypothesis is correct.

c. To provide the information basic to individual guidance. This must include all significant aspects of the pupils' accomplishments, abilities, and personality.

d. To provide a certain psychological security to the school staff, to pupils, and to parents. Without systematic evaluation, the tendency too often is for the staff to retreat into activities which may be unimportant but which give tangible results.

e. To provide a sound basis for public relations. Criticism of parents and taxpayers can often be turned into cooperation if concrete evidence of the school's accomplishment is available.

B. INVESTIGATIONS INVOLVING EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE AND PUPIL PERSONNEL WORK

1. *Types of Procedure.* It is obvious that little improvement can be made in guidance and pupil personnel services until effective methods of evaluation are developed. This task is an exceedingly difficult one, for the objectives of this service are many and very complex. In spite of this difficulty many attempts at evaluation have been made and many devices developed for assisting in the appraisal of elements in the program. The Commission on Secondary Schools in its guidance blank has set up a very interesting and helpful procedure by which a secondary school may evaluate its guidance program. A modified but similar procedure has been organized by the U.S. Office of Education. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has experimented with a somewhat different approach. It attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of the program as a whole by a study of the various parts of the service.

It is difficult to classify the different methods and devices used in the evaluation of guidance and personnel work; many studies do not fall readily into any type of classification. In general, investigations involving evaluation fall under the following heads: [8] (1) attempts to determine and formulate objectives and

---

[8] Froelich (see reference at end of chapter) uses a different classification.

purposes; (2) attempts to determine the essentials of an effective program in terms of personnel, equipment, and organization; (3) attempts to determine the most effective methods; and (4) attempts to determine results in terms of pupil development, school improvement, and community enlightenment.

It is impossible and undesirable here to make any comprehensive survey of such attempts at evaluation. The references at the end of the chapter will give the material necessary for such a study. We shall merely discuss each of the general types given above and state briefly some conclusions reached.

a. Objectives of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work. As has been previously stated, no real evaluation can be made without first setting up objectives in terms of which the evaluation is to be made. Every evaluation that has been made, therefore, is based upon certain objectives expressed or implied. On the other hand, the complete validity of objectives can be determined only after investigations of results have been made to find whether the objectives set up are possible of attainment. The determination of objectives has been the object of many investigations. The methods used, for the most part, have been by "expert opinion" or the consensus of many participant "experts" and others who are engaged in guidance and pupil personnel work. Some examples of this are the Carnegie Study by Kefauver and Hand, the statements of "Principles and Practices of Guidance" by the National Vocational Guidance Association, and the statements in the Evaluation Procedures of the Commission on Secondary Schools. There is now a fairly general agreement on the basic objectives (see Chap. III, p. 84).

b. The Determination of the Essentials of the Program. Many studies have been made of desirable types of programs of guidance and pupil personnel work. It is evident that we do not yet have evidence sufficient to warrant the determination of the exact type of personnel or organization that is most effective; we do have, however, fairly clear data on types of functions and services and equipment that are essential. These usually include (1) individual inventory, (2) educational and occupational information, (3) counseling, (4) placement and (5) follow-up. Samples of these are those listed by Hamrin and Erickson, the Evaluation Criteria blanks of the Commission on Secondary Schools, and the *Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Procedures in*

Secondary Schools, by the Occupational Information and Guidance Service Division of Vocational Education, U.S. Office of Education.

c. Determination of Effective Methods. This is closely related to the determination of results. Results are related to methods and devices for securing information about the individual, information about occupational and educational information, methods of using the material obtained, and methods of counseling, placement, and follow-up. Methods of securing educational and occupational information are fairly well standardized; methods for testing, types of tests, and the use of tests are not so well established. Studies of methods of counseling have been directed toward determining the comparative effectiveness of the so-called "directive" and "nondirective" methods. These studies seem to show a definite place for each method.

d. Determination of Results. Investigations regarding the results of programs are the least satisfactory of any of the elements studied. The results of special methods and devices have been studied with varying results. Billings' study of the value of a course in giving pupils information about occupations is a type of such a study. The results were inconclusive.

Studies of the success or the satisfaction of pupils in later life are also inconclusive as are the studies of pupil reaction to procedures and methods used. Success and satisfaction are elusive terms and difficult to define or determine. It is also difficult to determine with any degree of accuracy whether the results noted were caused by the guidance services or by some other factor or combination of factors. Little attention has been given to the effects of the program of guidance and personnel work upon the school and on the community.

A significant and comprehensive attempt at evaluation was made by Rothney and Roen.[9] This was a careful and systematic study of the program of guidance and pupil personnel work over a period of five years in the public high school of Arlington, Mass. It describes the program in detail, outlines the development of methods and devices, and attempts to evaluate results. The counseling procedures were centered around the educational, personal, and career-choice problems of pupils. The

---

[9] ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M., and BERT A. ROEN, "Guidance of American Youth," Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1950.

pupil-subjects were matched on seven variables with noncounseled youth. The authors report significant gains over the five-year period made by the pupils who were counseled as compared with those who were not counseled. Although this study is subject to many of the criticisms described above, it is a significant contribution. It makes no attempt to do the impossible, to evaluate guidance in general; it merely describes the guidance and pupil personnel program, the methods and devices used in one school staffed by a particular personnel, and gives the results as seen by the authors. It does not even claim that the same or a similar program would be equally effective in any other school.

Discouraging as these conclusions may seem, it is certain that the self-evaluating programs of the Commission on Secondary Schools and that of the North Central Association are having a profound effect upon the development and improvement of the guidance program in our secondary schools.

e. The Ethical Practices Committee. This brief survey of the evaluation of guidance and pupil personnel services would be quite incomplete without some mention of the valuable work of the Ethical Practices Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association. This movement was inaugurated by Jesse B. Davis and was caused by the mushroom growth of private agencies that advertised their services in counseling and guidance to all who would come and pay the fees. Some of these were legitimate and performed good service; many were organized merely to prey upon those who were in trouble, and either had no personnel or material that could give the help or, at best, very inadequate ones. There was no way by which a prospective client could find out whether an agency was a legitimate one. The crusade by Davis finally resulted in the appointment of a Committee on Ethical Practices about 1938. In 1941 this committee formulated a list of "Criteria for Appraisal of a Vocational Guidance Agency." The war exigencies prevented further work on this project. In 1946 these "Criteria" were revised and adopted by the Delegate Assembly of the Association in 1947. They are as follows: [10]

An agency, organization or individual that provides vocational guidance service should meet the following minimum requirements:

[10] See *Occupations*, 27:570–596, May, 1949, for a report of the Committee and a preliminary directory of approved agencies.

1. *Recognition.* The agency (organization or individual) should be recognized by suitable educational institutions such as approved colleges and universities or by state or local supervisors of guidance, and be endorsed by professional organizations such as the National Vocational Guidance Association and the American Psychological Association.

2. *Personnel.* The staff should consist of competent and properly qualified people. Supervisors and those who work without close and direct supervision should possess the qualifications of Professional Members of the National Vocational Guidance Association.

3. *Procedures.* The agency should adhere to the standards set forth in the statement, "Principles and Practices of Vocational and Educational Guidance," obtainable from the national headquarters of the National Vocational Guidance Association. Among the methods which are specifically disapproved as vocational guidance procedures are: astrology, handwriting analysis, numerology, palmistry, phrenology and physiognomy, the practice of vocational guidance entirely or mainly by correspondence, the routine practice of counseling in one interview, and the giving of vocational advice entirely on the basis of tests.

4. *Advertising.* The agency should limit its publicity to dignified announcements and descriptions of its services, adhering to professional rather than to commercial standards. It should not indulge in self-praise or promise good results, either directly or by implication. It should not advertise in newspapers, magazines, or on the radio, and should not put more than a plain listing in telephone directories. The offer of free or low-cost aptitude tests as a method of sales promotion is disapproved.

5. *Fees.* Fees, if any are charged, should be reasonable in relation to service rendered. An approved agency does not pay fees to others for recommending clients to it, does not accept fees for recommending clients to a school or other agency, and does not require a client to pay a fee for guidance in order to qualify for ostensibly free job-placement service.

Immediately after the approval of the "Criteria," steps were taken to implement them. Very briefly they are as follows: (1) Each local branch of the Association is asked to appoint a local Committee on Ethical Practices. (2) These Committees send to the central committees the names of all private agencies in their communities that advertise counseling services. (3) The central committee sends a note to each of these agencies explaining

the work of the committee and asking whether or not it wishes to be appraised for approval. No agency is under any compulsion to ask for approval. (4) If the agency answers favorably, a long and searching questionnaire is sent to be filled out. In addition a written recommendation is required from two outside persons of standing equal to that of a professional member of the Association. (5) These papers are then sent to the local Ethical Practice Committee for examination. (6) Arrangements are made for the local committee to visit the agency (at least two members are required). At this visit the personnel, general facilities, and surroundings are carefully examined and checked against the reports sent in by the agency. (7) The local committee sends a written report to the central committee who then pass favorably or unfavorably upon the application of the agency for approval. (8) The list is published in *Occupations* and copies are made available to all counselors and to all agencies.

In the first year of operation over a hundred agencies were approved, representing half the states and Canada.

This movement already has had a very beneficial effect and further steps are planned. Beginning in 1949, a fee has been charged each agency that applies in order to cover the considerable expense attached to the work of the committee and the visits made. No claim is made that the approved list includes all worthy agencies; the names of those who apply and are approved are the only ones published. Although the standards set in the requirements are low, the influence of the project has been very salutary.

2. *Tendencies in Evaluation.* One of the most hopeful signs in these attempts is the suggestions that are made regarding a more comprehensive type of appraisal. This type of appraisal rejects conclusions based on statistical interpretations alone as being inadequate and substitutes a judgment criterion which makes use of every instrument available—tests, scales, observations, longitudinal and cross-sectional records, etc., but also draws these together to obtain an over-all picture and estimates as best it may the value of the method or device or of the combination of all the factors employed.

C. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS REGARDING EVALUATION

In summing up the situation regarding the present attempts at evaluation we note from the excellent article by Williamson and Bordin: [11]

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. All available methods of evaluation have weaknesses.

2. Composite criteria which avoid arithmetic combination of the part-criteria are at present least open to question, although still being crude measures.

3. The problem of securing sufficient data without doing violence to the concept and practice of counseling is a real one. Involved also are the inadequacy and incompleteness of most available case records.

4. The proper time interval to use for evaluation is extremely important because of the possible relationship between the intervention of confusing factors and the length of time between counseling and evaluation.

5. The methods used for validation of diagnostic and prognostic tools (*e.g.*, tests) may not be applicable because of the uniqueness of each counseling situation. Stated another way, the methods of studying students in general may not be applied to the study of individual students with particular problems.

6. An impediment to more exact evaluation is the inability to control conditions for an adequate test of counseling recommendations.

Evaluations are not something new in human experience; they began when the first choice was made, when one object or course of action was chosen instead of another. Evaluations are essential to improvement of any kind, to progress. That they do not always result in progress is because they are too often based upon habit or prejudice; they are concerned with keeping things as they are; they may thus actually impede progress. The evaluations we usually make have reference to means of attaining ends; less frequently, perhaps, they are concerned with ends themselves. When we do attempt to evaluate ends they ordinarily are small, immediate, or contributory to larger, more re-

---

[11] WILLIAMSON, E. G., and E. S. BORDIN, The Evaluation of Vocational and Educational Counseling: A Critique of the Methodology of Experiments, *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, 1:5–24, January, 1941.

mote ends. Seldom do we try to find the value of the larger ends of life, we take them for granted. We assume that long life, health and physical comfort, freedom from want, friends, home, religion, education are valuable, and we base this upon our experience. We seldom speak of evaluating religion or education, and, likewise, we usually do not attempt to evaluate guidance as a whole. We take for granted that helping the individual when he needs it is desirable. Our attempts at evaluation are directed mostly toward judging the effectiveness of the different contributory objectives set up, objectives of organization, personnel, or methods used in the attempt to guide individuals.

When one views as a whole the many attempts at the evaluation of methods and practices of guidance, he cannot help being amazed at the courage displayed by so many in even undertaking such a difficult task. The feeling of irritation at the narrow view of the few and their preposterous claims of the efficiency of a certain method is softened, if not entirely removed, by the humility and scientific attitude of the many. Possibly the greatest contribution of the recent attempts at evaluation is their emphasis upon the concept of guidance as something that is concerned with the entire personality of the individual, that it is a unitary process. It cannot be separated by any logical analysis into different aspects. This end and purpose being accepted, the chief differences between guidance workers are now regarding the relative emphasis that should be placed upon problems that relate to occupations as opposed to other aspects of life or to life viewed as a unified whole, and regarding the methods and practices that are most effective in attaining the ends set up.

REFERENCES

1. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION, *Review of Educational Research*, Washington, D.C. The following volumes of the *Review*, entitled "Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counseling," furnish by far the most thorough, complete, and careful descriptions and criticisms of research in personnel work and guidance available: Vol. 3, No. 3, June, 1933; Vol. 6, No. 2, April, 1936; Vol. 9, No. 2, April, 1939; Vol. 12, No. 1, February, 1942.

2. BREWER, JOHN M., and others: "History of Vocational Guidance," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1942. The most complete and authoritative reference on the history of guidance.

3. Froelich, Clifford P.: Evaluating Guidance Procedures, a Review of the Literature, *U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous* 3310, 1949. An extensive collection of references on evaluation of guidance.

4. Hamrin, Shirley A., and Clifford E. Erickson: "Guidance in the Secondary School," pp. 329–331, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York, 1939. Gives a check list for evaluating a program of guidance.

5. Kefauver, Grayson N., and Harold C. Hand: "Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools," The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941. An account of a nationwide attempt to appraise guidance in all its phases. Although the plan of the study is interesting, its chief permanent value is in the revelation of the difficulties involved in such an undertaking. The suggestions given in Chap. X, "Some Proposals for the Appraisal of Guidance," are especially timely and important.

6. Kitson, Harry Dexter, and Margaret Crane: Measuring the Results of Vocational Guidance—a Summary of Attempts, 1932–1937, *Occupations*, 16:837–842, June, 1938. A terse and discriminating summary of attempts at evaluation during the period.

7. Kitson, Harry Dexter, and E. M. Stover: Measuring Vocational Guidance: a Summary of Attempts, *Personnel Journal*, 11:50–159, October, 1932. A helpful summary of various attempts made between 1907 and 1932 to evaluate guidance.

8. Rothney, John W. M., and Bert A. Roen: "Guidance of American Youth," Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1950. A description of the program of study and counseling of public-high-school pupils in Arlington, Mass., and an evaluation of its results over a five-year period.

9. Williamson, E. G., and E. S. Bordins: The Evaluation of Vocational and Educational Counseling: A Critique of the Methodology of Experiments, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1:5–24, January, 1941. A careful analysis of evaluative procedures in guidance, with searching criticisms of present methods and suggestions for improvement.

VISUAL-AIDS BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following visual materials are intended to supplement some of the material in this book. They have been grouped in rough approximation of the three major sections of the book, with the addition of a group of films which are useful in a guidance program itself. Many of the materials apply to more than one section but have been mentioned only once under the section to which they seem most pertinent.

These films and filmstrips can be secured from the producers or distributors listed with each title; or, in many cases, they can also be secured from your local film library or regional film distributor. (The addresses of the producers and distributors are listed at the end of the bibliography.)

Unless otherwise indicated all films are 16mm sound, black and white, and filmstrips are 35mm silent, black and white. FS indicates a filmstrip.

PART 1

Brotherhood of Man (Brandon, 10 min color). Based on the Benedict-Weltfish pamphlet *Races of Mankind*, this color cartoon is a witty, effective discussion of race differences.

Children of the City (BIS, 30 min). The problem of juvenile delinquency in a Scottish city is approached through the child's home environment.

Children on Trial (BIS, 62 min). Tells the story of two boys and a girl, repeat offenders, who are send to approved schools for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents.

Children's Emotions (McGraw, 22 min). The major emotions of childhood—fear, anger, jealousy, curiosity, and joy—are described, and methods of dealing with them are explained.

Children's Village (McGraw, 19 min). The Village at Dobbs Ferry operated by letting its young members run it along their own lines. A clear picture of modern methods of treating juvenile delinquents.

Family Circles (McGraw, 31 min). Shows how the interplay of home and school influences affect the development of today's chil-

dren. Experiences of three children illustrate how parental indifference, lack of imagination, and emotional conflict at home can destroy the confidence and enthusiasm necessary for a child's success at school.

Feelings of Depression (McGraw, 30 min). The story of a thirty-year-old businessman, of how he became depressed, and of the factors that precipitated his depression. Shows how his personality development from childhood made him vulnerable to those factors.

Feeling of Hostility (McGraw, 31 min). Case history of Clare, an outwardly successful but inwardly incomplete personality. The causes of her feelings of resentment are traced in detail from early childhood through school and a career job.

Feeling of Rejection (McGraw, 21 min). Case history of Margaret, who has physical disorders with no physical cause. A psychiatrist, probing her past, shows her the root of her trouble.

Let Us Grow—In Human Understanding (NYU, 30 min). A film on the program of the Vassar Summer Institute of 1945, where specialists in child development and parents studied children's needs.

Make Way for Youth (Assn, 22 min). Startled into action by tragedy, the people of a typical American town start on a youth program, and the fences between neighborhoods, races, and religions begin to break down.

Overdependency (McGraw, 32 min). Case history of Jim, who uses illness as an escape from responsibility. Shows how his overdependence in childhood on his mother and sister later transfers to his wife.

Preface to a Life (Castle, 28 min). The effects of adult behavior in a child's early years on his emotional maturity are shown through the story of Michael Thompson; shows how he might turn out as the result of four different sets of circumstances.

Problem Children (NYU, 20 min). Two seventh-grade children, one a bully and one excessively shy, are seen to present a special problem to their teacher. Family background, relationship between school and home, and techniques for helping the children are shown.

The Quiet One (Athena, 80 min). A stirring documentary about a neglected child in Harlem. Shows treatment at Wiltwyck School on the Hudson.

Social Development (McGraw, 16 min). The social behavior patterns of children at various stages of development are shown. The change from passivity to aggression, the formation of gangs, the development of the group leader, the drift away from home surroundings are all indicated through the behavior of a group of children vacationing at the seashore.

Valley Town (NYU, 30 min). A documentary study of an important factor in the unemployment problem—that of workers displaced by automatic machinery. Includes a section expressing the psychological effects of unemployment on family life.

What's on Your Mind? (NFB, 10 min). The strain of modern life with its complex problems tells heavily upon mental health. Shows how psychiatry is now providing real help in meeting many ills.

Who's Delinquent? (McGraw, 16 min). Story of how a newspaper digs into the causes of juvenile delinquency in its town, and the program that comes out of it.

PART 2

Balloons (NYU, 20 min). Shows how differently two children, two months apart in age and having similar backgrounds, respond to a graduated series of opportunities and invitations to break balloons.

Finger Painting (NYU, 20 min color si). An introduction to the use of finger paints by young children as a way of recognizing personality patterns.

Frustration Play Techniques (NYU, 40 min). Demonstrates techniques developed by Dr. Eugene Lerner of Sarah Lawrence. A series of games indicates how children respond to intrusions, prohibitions, and competition.

Psychiatry in Action (BIS, 63 min). The work of a British hospital specializing in the treatment of military and civilian war neuroses with the aim of rapid rehabilitation. Includes scenes of preliminary interviews, psychological tests of all types, shock therapy, narcoanalysis, and group recreational and occupational therapy.

Testing the IQ (IFB, 15 min si). Demonstrates the administration of the revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test and the calculation of the IQ.

Understanding Children's Play (NYU, 10 min). Designed to show adults how to understand and help children through observation of their use of toys and play materials.

PART 3

Aptitudes and Occupations (Cor, 16 min). *Discusses six of the* fundamental human abilities and indicates how the student, with the aid of the school counselor, may determine how much of each of these he has.

As Our Boyhood Is (Brandon, 18 min). Picture of Negro education in the United States and what is being done to improve it.

A Better Tomorrow (NYU, 20 min). Describes a kind of school system which makes major efforts to deal with problems of vocation.

Counseling—Its Tools and Techniques (Mahnke, 22 min). Shows a well-trained counselor at work, the tools and techniques used, and the method of employing these tools and techniques to their best advantage.

A Child Went Forth (Brandon, 20 min). An intimate, affectionate picture of two- to seven-year-olds in a nursery camp. The film shows the wide scope of activities possible through sympathetic guidance.

Guidance Problem for School and Home (TC, 18 min). The problem of Danny, a second-grader, who has poor social adjustment and is not doing well at school. Shows how the teacher and Danny's mother work together to solve the problem.

Human Beginnings (Assn, 22 min). Provides understanding of what happens in the home and in the hospital with the coming of a baby, and intends to develop a wholesome and happy relationship between the young child, the parents, and the baby.

Individual Differences (McGraw, 23 min). Illustrates the point that individual differences must be met in terms of individual interests and capabilities, through the story of Roy and how his teacher met his special problem.

Learning to Understand Children, Part 1: A Diagnostic Approach (McGraw, 21 min). Presents the case of Ada Adams, an emotionally and socially maladjusted girl of fifteen, and the efforts of her English teacher to help her. Shows the diagnostic techniques, such as observation, study of previous records, personal interviews, home visitation, and formulation of a hypothesis for remedial measures.

Learning to Understand Children, Part 2: A Remedial Program (McGraw, 23 min). A continuation of the case of Ada Adams. Her teacher develops a plan in which the child's interest in art is used to improve her self-confidence and interest in school.

Of Pups and Puzzles (TFC, 11 min). A study in individual differences and techniques to be followed in fitting applicants to the position of their greatest usefulness.

Play Is Our Business (Sun-Dial, 20 min). Shows typical play settings in public schools, a settlement and a housing project, where children of all races and creeds are provided with a wide range of play activities for their afterschool hours.

Playtown USA (Assn, 23 min). The "why" and "how" of community organization for a year-round, all-age recreation program.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment, Part 1: The Drop-Out: A Case Study (McGraw, 20 min). The case of Steve Martin, who quit high school after his freshman year and then just drifted. He found school dull and monotonous, and his natural interests frustrated. Suggests

that a life adjustment program in the school might be the answer for Steve and other "dropouts."

Problem of Pupil Adjustment, Part 2: The Stay-In: A School Study (McGraw, 19 min). The study of an actual school that holds an enviable record for reducing its "dropouts" to less than 5 per cent of its student population. It shows clearly what can be done to meet this problem when individual pupil needs are met in a school program that stresses learning in terms of adjustment to actual everyday living.

Road to Decision (USDA, 30 min). Through a story about two veterans and their vocational problems this film portrays the counseling program of the VA.

Teacher as Observer and Guide (TC, 20 min). Six sequences, presenting actual classroom practice and directing attention to the importance of the teacher as observer and guide of children's growth.

FILMS FOR USE IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Are You Popular? (Cor, 10 min). Crystallizes teen-age problems of social behavior into a guide for boy and girl proprieties and popularity.

Emotional Health (McGraw, 20 min). Intended for use with college freshmen, the film shows a young man with ailments for which the school doctor can find no physical cause. He is sent to a psychiatrist, and, through discussion, is able to understand the basis for his illness.

Finding Your Life Work (Mahnke, 22 min). Indicates the necessity of finding out about oneself and about the occupational possibilities before deciding on a life work.

Shy Guy (Cor, 12 min). Deals with overcoming adolescent shyness.

Your Life Work (Mahnke). A series of films dealing individually with various occupations from agriculture to woodworking. Apply to producer for description of the entire series.

DIRECTORY OF SOURCES

Assn—Association Films, 35 W. 45 St., New York.
Athena—Athena Films, 165 W. 48 St., New York.
Brandon—Brandon Films, 1700 Broadway, New York.
BIS—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.
Castle—Castle Films Division, 1445 Park Ave., New York.
Cor—Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago.

IFB—International Film Bureau, Suite 1500, 6 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

McGraw—McGraw-Hill Textfilms, 330 W. 42 St., New York.

Mahnke—Carl F. Mahnke Productions, 2708 Beaver Ave., Des Moines.

NFB—National Film Board of Canada, 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New York.

NYU—New York University Film Library, Washington Sq., New York.

Sun-Dial—Sun-Dial Films, 625 Madison Ave., New York.

TC—Teachers College Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York.

TFC—Teaching Films Custodians, 25 W. 43 St., New York.

USDA—United States Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D.C.

NAME INDEX

SUBJECT INDEX

A

Abilities, correlation between, 112–114
  definition of, 168
  influences on, 106–108
  innate, absence of, 114–116
    evidence for, 117–119
  and occupations, 110–112
  specialized, 108–119
  in student activities, 155–158
Ability expectancy, definition of, 168
Achievement, academic, and I.Q., 179–182
  definition of, 168
Achievement tests, 162–165
Activities, choice of, 492–494
  creative, 493–494
  cultural and appreciation, 486, 493
  and curriculum, 487–488
  escape, 485–486
  leisure-time, 485–494
  service, 487, 494
  student (see Student activities)
  types of, 485–487
Adelphi Academy program for student activities, 491–492
Adjustment institutes, 443–444
Adult education, 444–445
Adults, guidance for, 422–423
Agencies, 403, 425–445
  community, 428–431
  educational, 443–445
  Federal, 425, 431–442, 591–593
  private, 426–427
  service, 427–431
  for veterans, 429–430
American Council of Education, 87, 238, 273, 428
  Description of Behavior, 209

American Youth Commission, 425
Anecdotal records, 240–241, 250
Antioch College, vocational experience in, 419
Aptitude tests, 189–191
  distinguished from trade tests, 192
  meaning of, 189
  types of, 190
Aptitudes, in choice of occupations, 392
  and personality, 214
Armed forces, services to, 429–431, 440, 443
Armour and Company, personality blanks, 207
Army Alpha Tests, 166, 182–184, 186
Army General Classification Tests, 184
Association for Adult Education, 427
Astrology, 37–39

B

Batavia High School, vocational guidance in, 380
Behavior, description of, 206, 209
Bellevue Intelligence Scale, 171
Bell's Adjustment Inventory, 210
Bernreuter Personality Inventory, 210–211
"Big Brothers" and "Big Sisters," 343–346
Binet tests, 166
Biographies in vocational guidance, 383–385
Birth and death rates, changes in, 19–20
Boston, group counseling in, 335–341

621